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ABSTRACT

Designed to help those who develop and implement formal mentoring programs find relevant information, this publication summarizes 80 books and articles selected from the practical and academic literature. Section 1 is an annotated bibliography of the 80 works representative of the available published literature on formal mentoring programs within organizational settings. Sections 2-4 organize information from the annotations in subject areas that are designed to help human resources practitioners, trainers, management-development directors, and other individuals whose responsibilities involve management development within organizations. Section 2 contains a brief historical overview, describing the thinking about and the use of formal mentoring programs. The last two sections review literature on practical issues around program content and development. Section 3 takes a look at the objectives, content, and benefits and drawbacks of mentoring programs. Section 4 offers practical advice for individuals hoping to initiate a formal mentoring program or improve an existing one. It summarizes the recurring themes regarding effective strategies for developing and implementing formal mentoring relationships in organizations. Author and title indexes are provided. (YLB)

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Christina A. Douglas

FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMS IN ORGANIZATIONS

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Christina A. Douglas

Center for Creative Leadership
Greensboro, North Carolina

The Center for Creative Leadership is an international, nonprofit educational institution founded in 1970 to advance the understanding, practice, and development of leadership for the benefit of society worldwide. As a part of this mission, it publishes books and reports that aim to contribute to a general process of inquiry and understanding in which ideas related to leadership are raised, exchanged, and evaluated. The ideas presented in its publications are those of the author or authors.

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Preface

As part of a group of researchers at the Center for Creative Leadership looking at the role that relationships can play in management development, I became particularly interested in the formal strategies that organizations use to facilitate and promote developmental relationships. Subsequently I completed a thorough review of the literature on such relationships within organizations, collecting over two hundred books and articles.

Although the scope of the review was broad and included many types of formal developmental relationships—such as mentoring, peer relationships, executive coaching, action-learning, and structured networks—most of the published literature focused on formal mentoring relationships. These relationships are called *formal* because organizations take an active role in their initiation and implementation. With so many organizations looking for ways to provide fruitful developmental experiences for their staff, I concluded that the material I had collected on formal mentoring could be useful to them in the form of an annotated bibliography.

I am grateful to several individuals who helped me with this report. First, I would like to thank Cindy McCauley for giving me the opportunity to write it and for providing invaluable assistance and feedback. I am also indebted to Marcia Horowitz for her helpful editorial guidance throughout its development and production. I would also like to thank Patti Hall, Tom Kealey, and Deanna Lowe for their assistance in identifying and obtaining references.

For their roles as Publication Review Committee members, I owe many thanks to Jerry Brightman, Maxine Dalton, and Martha Hughes-James. Finally, I am grateful to the reviewers—Doug Groseclose, Kathy Kram, Jennifer Martineau, and Bill Sternbergh—who provided valuable suggestions for improving this report.

Introduction

Recent research on managerial learning has emphasized the critical role of on-the-job relationships in career development. These are often *informal developmental relationships*, which occur naturally in the workplace between less-experienced managers and senior managers, peers, or subordinates. Such relationships provide a variety of assistance including mentoring, feedback, counseling, coaching, sponsoring, skill-building, preparation for advancement, role-modeling, and reinforcement (Kram & Bragar, 1991; McCauley & Young, 1993). However, recent trends in the business climate such as the introduction of new technology, intense competition, and changing demographics have decreased opportunities for informal developmental relationships (Flynn, 1995; Gaskill, 1993; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991; Zey, 1988).

In response, there is a growing trend in organizations to increase the availability of on-the-job developmental experiences through *formal developmental relationships*. These are distinguished from informal relationships by the fact that they are assigned, maintained, and monitored by the organization, usually through an established program.

An employee can participate in a formal relationship with a senior manager, a peer, or with an external consultant. Most organizations, however, have focused on creating programs that facilitate alliances between junior and senior managers; such pairings are typically labeled *formal mentoring relationships*.

A body of recent literature describes the experiences of individuals involved in formal mentoring relationships and the experiences of the organizations that provide programs for them. The purpose of this report is to help those who develop and implement formal mentoring programs easily access this literature; the publications annotated here are the most useful sources currently available.

The report is divided into four sections. "Section I" is a bibliography of eighty works, representative of the available published literature on formal mentoring programs within organizational settings. The annotations are descriptive summaries and are meant to help readers decide if they wish to access the complete work for more information.

The next three sections organize information from the annotations in subject areas that are designed to help human resources practitioners, trainers, management-development directors, and other individuals whose responsibilities involve management development within organizations.

"Section 2" contains a brief historical overview, describing the thinking about and the use of formal mentoring programs. It also includes several perspectives on what the concept of formal mentoring means to the authors of those works included in this bibliography, including simple definitions as well as conceptual frameworks.

In the process of analyzing the annotations for recurrent themes, I observed that many of the works appeared to emphasize descriptions of existing formal mentoring programs and, in many cases, offered advice for individuals wishing to implement program initiatives. Therefore, the last two sections reflect practical issues around program content and development. "Section 3" takes a look at the objectives, content, and benefits and drawbacks of mentoring programs. "Section 4" offers practical advice for individuals hoping to initiate a formal mentoring program or improve an existing one. It summarizes the recurring themes regarding effective strategies for developing and implementing formal mentoring relationships in organizations.

The works annotated here were chosen by doing a thorough search of the available current literature on the subject, including both academic- and practitioner-oriented sources. Two databases were searched: *Psych-Lit* (January 1982 to March 1997) and *ABI-Inform* (January 1982 to January 1997). In addition, references were obtained from a comprehensive bibliography on mentoring, covering published literature on formal and informal mentoring (1982 to 1992), released by the Center for Creative Learning in Sarasota, Florida (Noller & Frey, 1994).

Section 1: Annotated Bibliography

Most of the works cited here are from the practitioner-oriented literature; they aim to describe current, existing programs in organizations or provide advice to individuals wishing to develop formal mentoring programs. There are also some works cited that are theoretical in nature and some that describe empirical studies. A word, however, about what was not included and why.

It is the intention of this report to examine relevant, current, and accessible works on formal mentoring relationships. Therefore, dissertations, unpublished research, and papers presented at organizational meetings and not published in proceedings were not considered because they are difficult to obtain. Also excluded is all literature exclusively dealing with informal relationships such as informal mentoring, relationships based on work output such as task forces and project teams, or relationships that have naturally developed and evolved.

In addition, because the report focuses on organizational programs whose primary purpose is to help individuals develop as managers and professionals within for-profit organizations, it excludes all literature dealing with programs directed toward individuals at other levels than managerial or those within nonprofit organizations (for instance, formal developmental relationships in schools and trade apprenticeships). Finally, the literature dealing with other types of formal developmental relationships, such as those with peers or outside consultants, is excluded.

The citations are arranged alphabetically by first author's last name. The "Author Index" at the end of this report lists all authors included, and readers will find all the book and article titles in the "Title Index." Whether book, article, or newsletter, the inclusive page numbers of the work are included.

Antal, Ariane B. Odysseus' legacy to management development: Mentoring. *European Management Journal* 11:4, 1993, pp. 448-454.

Antal presents four case studies of formal mentoring programs in Swedish organizations. ABB Sweden, a large international organization, has developed a mentoring program, which is open to all women in the company, in the hopes of developing knowledge and increasing the information flow within the organization. The city of Stockholm has also implemented a formal

mentoring program for high-potential women who have been nominated by department heads and then paired with top managers in city government.

Trygg-Hansa SPP, a European insurance company, has introduced a mentoring program for a very small group of women identified by the organization as potential high-flyers. Finally, Ruter Dam, a small consulting organization, has organized a management-development program for women that focuses heavily on intraorganizational mentoring.

The programs vary on several dimensions—purpose, selection of mentors, matching, and process—but are all fairly successful in their career-development objectives. The author identifies several conclusions or lessons to be learned from the case studies. First, she concludes that mentoring is a valuable addition to management-development efforts. Second, formal mentoring programs potentially benefit both mentors and protégés by providing learning and motivation. Third, active top-management support is a critical component of successful mentoring programs. Fourth, a variety of successful methods exist for identifying, selecting, and matching program participants. The author notes the importance of good chemistry between protégés and their mentors and concludes that a mentoring program should be a part of a larger management-development strategy.



Ball, Aimee L. Mentors and protégés: Portraits of success. *Working Woman*, October 1989, pp. 134-142.

Most of this article focuses on informal mentoring by describing several mentor-protégé relationships. However, several formal mentoring programs in large organizations are also briefly described. Ortho Pharmaceutical Corporation has a one-year program for new employees aimed at assimilating them into the organizational culture. Eastman Kodak Company matches up new employees and junior scientists with mentors. The Clairol Mentor Program matches up professional women from different fields and organizations as part of a public-service program. Managers at Pacific Bell nominate promising subordinates for the company's seven-month program. Finally, AT&T runs a two-month mentoring program that matches minorities and women with senior managers.



Barclay, David. Commitment from the top makes it work. *IEEE Spectrum* 29:6, June 1992, pp. 24-27.

Two formal strategies used at Hughes Aircraft Company to promote workforce diversity are briefly described in this article. Employee networking organizations were established for several minority groups (women, Asians, employees with disabilities, among others) in order to encourage them to communicate with each other and with senior management. In addition, a planned mentoring program was put in place where experienced managers were matched with new minority employees.



Berstein, Beverly J., and Beverly L. Kaye. Teacher, tutor, colleague, coach. *Personnel Journal* 65:11, November 1986, pp. 44-51.

The authors suggest several guidelines to be considered in the development of a formal mentoring program. Initiatives that create formal mentoring programs are effective career-development tools and offer advantages over other career-development programs. Specifically, these advantages include the level of individual attention offered by mentoring programs compared to other career-development initiatives, as well as the ease with which an organization can continue such programs once in place because of the minimal involvement required.

However, the authors emphasize the importance of identifying program goals and developing the program with them in mind. Several suggestions or guidelines are cited, including the following: (1) articulation of goals and intended outcomes; (2) group meetings with participants in order to gather information on expectations and build commitment for the program; (3) separate training sessions for mentors and protégés in order to clarify roles and objectives; and (4) follow-up activities, including meetings with participants and past participants, visible recognition of the program with rewards provided to participants and mentors by top management, and formal evaluation of the program.



Brown, Robert L. Mentoring program builds million dollar agencies.

Manager's Magazine 65:5, May 1990, pp. 10-18.

Minnesota Mutual, a large insurance company, attributes a large part of its success at one of its California agencies to a formal mentoring program. The twelve-month program matches successful, experienced agents with new agents. Mentors provide the new agents with leads in the business market and allow them to come along on appointments if the new agents meet specified performance goals (for example, a specific number of appointments each week with business prospects). In other words, in exchange for securing appointments for the mentor during the training period, the new agent gains the opportunity to observe a successful agent in action.

The new agents are held accountable for their ability to secure appointments; if one fails to obtain the required number of appointments for his or her mentor, the mentor goes to the appointments without the new agent. Potential mentors must meet certain criteria (such as performance) to be considered for the program; as potential protégés, new agents are carefully recruited and selected.

The program has also been successfully transferred to three other agencies within Minnesota Mutual. However, these agencies were selected for program implementation after careful screening and analysis. The parent organization selected these three agencies based on several criteria including agency motivation, professionalism, experience, systems orientation, and leadership.

The author also presents some financial data to support his contentions of the program's success, including comparisons of participating and nonparticipating agents and historical agency revenues. Although based on very limited data and small sample sizes, the data do offer some preliminary evidence of the program's contributions to agency success.



Brown, Robert L. Million dollar mentors revisited: Agency growth systems successfully transferred. *Manager's Magazine* 66:7, July 1991, pp. 6-9.

This follow-up article by Brown describes in detail the transfer of a successful formal mentoring program from one agency to another within the same company. Described in Brown (1990), the program matches up new agents with experienced ones in a way that offers benefits to both (for example, new agents make appointments for mentors and mentors provide

advice and role-modeling insight). The transfer and implementation of the program to the Richmond, Virginia, agency forced the general agent to be very organized and accountable to the parent organization. Surprisingly, the general agent also reported that the program has had its biggest impact on recruiting. For example, the recruiting process is very structured, and individuals are hired strictly within classes. They are not hired unless there is an opening for the mentoring program. In addition, the mentoring program is an attractive incentive to potential recruits because it offers new hires highly structured training, target marketing, and a chance to help launch their careers by working closely with mentors. Therefore, the agency has seen a vast improvement in the quality of new hires.



Brown, Robert L. Start with structure: Creating a mentoring program. *Manager's Magazine* 68:1, January 1993, pp. 16-18.

Based on the author's consulting experience with insurance agencies, he emphasizes the importance of program structure to the success of formal mentoring programs. Developing and managing effective programs requires much effort in terms of the structures and systems that should govern the mentoring process. More specifically, structure should govern how and when participants are recruited to the program, how mentoring relationships will operate, and qualifications for mentors. In addition, there should be a structured process to oversee how management will coordinate the supervision, training, and marketing needed to support the program.



Burke, Ronald J., and Carol A. McKeen. Developing formal mentoring programs in organizations. *Business Quarterly* 53:3, December 1989, pp. 76-79.

This article provides guidelines for developing formal mentoring programs in organizations that reduce the risk of negative consequences such as mismatched pairs, resentment by nonparticipants, and anxiety. First, identify and define the goals of the program. Second, program success is highly dependent on support from top management. Third, it is important that much thought and development be targeted at the program structure and the strategies that will be used to encourage mentoring relationships.

Important dimensions of strategy include training efforts that foster an awareness of mentoring and its role in career development and structural changes that will support the initiative (such as changes in reward systems, work design, and performance-appraisal systems). Regarding structure and requirements of the mentoring program, the authors emphasize the importance of voluntary participation, careful selection and matching of protégés and mentors, and an orientation session to clarify roles and responsibilities.



Carden, Ann D. Mentoring and adult career development: The evolution of a theory. *The Counseling Psychologist* 18:2, 1990, pp. 275-299.

Carden presents a general review of the mentoring literature, including theory and research related to mentoring definitions, mentoring processes, and formal mentoring programs. There is a wide continuum of definitions, ranging from Levinson's view of mentoring as an intense, long-term developmental relationship [Levinson, Daniel J., Charlotte N. Darrow, Edward B. Klein, Maria A. Levinson, and Braxton McKee. *Seasons of a Man's Life*. New York: Knopf, 1978], to Kanter's conceptualization of mentoring as stressing the instrumental nature of the relationship and focusing on sponsorship as opposed to development [Kanter, Rosabeth. *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books, 1977]. Mentoring relationships should also be distinguished from other "helping relationships" such as guides, coaching relationships, and peer relationships. However, evidence suggests that mentoring is only one of a variety of advisory relationships that may be available to individuals seeking development and career advancement.

Several factors, such as growing competition for qualified entry-level employees and affirmative-action mandates, have stimulated the development of formal mentoring programs in the public sector, in private organizations, and in education. There has been a heated debate within the literature over the merits and drawbacks of formal mentoring programs. Proponents of these programs argue that effective programs can be developed through careful planning, top-management support, extensive orientation, built-in incentives, voluntary participation, and comprehensive ongoing evaluation. On the other side of the debate, several researchers and theorists have argued that mentoring relationships cannot be artificially created but must develop through informal channels. These individuals have also argued that formal mentoring relationships are more similar to coaching relationships than to traditional, informal mentoring relationships.



Casner-Lotto, Jill. Hewlett-Packard: Partnerships for new careers. In *Successful Training Strategies: 26 Innovative Corporate Models* by Jill Casner-Lotto, Ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1988, pp. 397-409.

Although most of this book focuses on case studies of innovative or exemplary training strategies in organizations, one chapter emphasizes a training strategy that involves formal mentoring. Chapter 26 presents a case study of Hewlett-Packard's retraining program called Partnerships for New Careers, which is aimed at moving employees from surplus production jobs into administrative and computer fields. The program was developed from the best practices of existing retraining programs at Hewlett-Packard and was intended to serve as a model for future retraining programs. It was hoped that the pilot program, developed for the San Francisco area, would be used on a national level.

The pilot program lasted approximately three months and was voluntary. Employees in surplus positions or in projected surplus positions were identified and provided with information regarding the program. Interested employees were asked to apply and were carefully screened and selected by a cross-functional committee, resulting in an approximate selection ratio of 50%. All training was paid for by the company and offered on company time (approximate costs were \$2,200 per participant, not including salary).

After being selected, participants were required to sign an agreement that outlined their roles and responsibilities. In addition, each participant was asked to select one of six major career tracks (for example, administrative support, computer operator, data processing). The program itself involved a combination of academic and on-the-job training. Academic training was through courses at a local college, and on-the-job training was achieved through new positions and temporary assignments.

As a part of the retraining strategy, each trainee was assigned a career mentor who provided career information and relevant on-the-job training experiences. For the most part, career mentors were higher-level individuals who worked in the participant's chosen career field (some participants were linked with individuals in their present field). Career mentors were expected to familiarize themselves with the course materials and offer appropriate on-the-job learning experiences that complemented them. The mentors were provided with detailed outlines describing sample training and learning

experiences that could be used. They were also expected to continue mentoring activities after the three-month training period was completed.



Catalyst. *Mentoring: A Guide to Corporate Programs and Practices*. New York: Author, 1993, 63 pages.

Based on a review of the current literature, this report provides an overview of formal mentoring programs within organizations and serves as a guide for developing and designing such programs. The report's purpose is twofold: (1) provide support for the contention that both formal and informal mentoring can have positive effects on women's career advancement; and (2) offer advice for fostering mentoring relationships for women within organizations.

Mentoring programs can meet the developmental needs of employees and the business needs of organizations by addressing human resources challenges (for instance, providing developmental opportunities for women and minorities), aiding in recruitment and retention, helping in succession planning, and fostering cultural change. Mentoring programs are used as recruitment tools when provided to new hires; programs can also help with retention by conveying the message that employees are valued. Mentoring programs have also been used to augment succession-planning strategies by allowing senior managers to identify and evaluate the skills of lower-level employees. In terms of cultural change, mentoring programs can ease cultural transitions and create a culture that fosters creativity by providing a safe environment for participants to develop new ideas and obtain feedback.

There is little consistency in how mentoring is defined in the popular and academic literature. This ambiguity has led to many variations in the ways in which mentoring is defined and used within organizations, and has also led to some resistance to formal mentoring programs by organizations. The guide defines a mentor as "any higher level employee who can be depended upon to share personal insights and to provide guidance and support that can enhance performance and career development" (p. 7). Specific mentoring roles may include sponsoring, teaching, coaching, protecting, counseling, and role-modeling.

The authors also describe five key program components that are identified within the current literature as critical to a program's success. First, an effective mentoring program must be linked to the business strategy of the organization and be consistent with other personnel practices. Second, visible

support of the program by top management reinforces the program's legitimacy and importance. This support can take various forms, ranging from having the CEO sign communications regarding the program to having senior managers serve as mentors. Third, there must be a supportive organizational culture in place so that the program falls within the company's comfort zone (namely, an environment that is ready to support relationships across management ranks). Fourth, comprehensive planning in the development, implementation, and monitoring of a program is critical to its success. Fifth, voluntary participation is also critical to a program's success; employees should be encouraged but not required to participate. In order for a formal mentoring relationship to be successful, participants have to be committed to making it work.

Using information from interviews and published literature, the authors also provide guidelines for developing and implementing a formal mentoring program. First, program administrators must have a clear understanding of employee and business needs before developing the program. Second, program objectives should be established and developed within the context of the organizational culture. Third, organizations implementing mentoring programs also need to provide an on-site coordinator who manages the program, supports the participants, and serves as an information resource. Fourth, the organization needs to estimate, commit, and allocate needed resources. Fifth, guidelines should be established and provided to participants regarding expected roles and responsibilities. Sixth, potential mentors should be carefully selected according to established criteria. Seventh, a program needs to have an established program for matching mentors and protégés; there are a variety of ways to match the participants, ranging from formal matches completed by a committee to bringing the participants together and letting them pair themselves. Eighth, role descriptions and training should be provided to participants as part of the program orientation. Ninth, the authors emphasize the importance of communicating and promoting the program within the organization. Finally, effective programs require continuous monitoring and evaluation in order to determine whether objectives are being met.

In addition, organizations need to be careful in the selection of mentors and matching of participants. Role descriptions and training should be provided to participants as part of the program orientation. The author also emphasizes the importance of communicating and promoting the program within the organization. Finally, effective programs require continuous monitoring and evaluation in order to determine whether objectives are being met.

Pitfalls or negative consequences that may occur but that can be avoided with careful planning include unrealistic expectations, problems with supervisors feeling that their authority is undermined, resentment from nonparticipants, poor matches, poor information passed on to protégés by mentors, exploitation of mentors or protégés in poor mentoring relationships, unrealistically high expectations on the organization's part regarding the program's impact on deep-seated company problems, shortages of potential mentors, and gender issues.

In one of the last sections of the report, the authors describe several case studies of successful mentoring programs at such organizations as AT&T, Champion International, Chubb Corporation, CIGNA, Colgate-Palmolive, Dow Jones, Liz Claiborne, NYNEX, Pitney Bowes, and Procter & Gamble. Both AT&T and Champion International match newly hired professional women and minorities with senior managers. Colgate-Palmolive also has implemented a mentoring program for newly hired employees at all levels. Chubb has several mentoring strategies that include a program for high-potentials and a program intended for both professional and staff development. CIGNA has established a mentoring guide for its operating divisions that provides some general advice but leaves the program development in the hands of the divisions. Dow Jones has designed an innovative program that uses mentoring quads consisting of a mentor and three employees to deal with mentoring shortages and encourage peer learning. Likewise, NYNEX uses mentoring circles for women that are comprised of one senior female manager and up to twelve protégés. Liz Claiborne's mentoring program is part of the company's management training program; it involves the matching of new hires with top managers. Pitney Bowes has implemented a mentoring program to encourage the development of women and minorities. Finally, Procter & Gamble has established a corporate mentoring program to improve management retention.



Chao, Georgia T., Pat M. Walz, and Philip D. Gardner. Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology* 45, Autumn 1992, pp. 619-636.

This field study compared three groups of individuals (212 protégés in informal mentoring relationships, 53 protégés in formal mentorships, and 284 individuals who did not have mentors) on three outcome variables (organiza-

tional socialization, job satisfaction, and salary). Individuals in informal and formal mentorships were also compared along two mentoring dimensions (career and psychosocial functions). The participating sample include 764 alumni randomly selected from nine graduating classes from a large Midwestern university and a small private institute. Surveys were mailed to these alumni, with a total of 576 participants returning completed surveys (75.9% response rate). The survey asked respondents to describe their mentoring experiences, to rate their mentors in terms of career and psychosocial functions, and to rate three individual outcomes (level of organizational socialization, level of job satisfaction, and salary).

The results of the study revealed that protégés in informal mentoring relationships reported receiving slightly more career mentoring from their mentors than the protégés who were involved in formal mentoring relationships. There were no significant differences between the two mentored groups in terms of the degree to which they reported receiving psychosocial support from their mentors. In terms of the individual outcome variables (job satisfaction, organizational socialization, and salary), there were not significant differences between the informally mentored participants and formally mentored participants.

There were clear differences in outcomes between the mentored and nonmentored groups. Informally mentored individuals reported greater job satisfaction, greater socialization, and higher salaries than nonmentored individuals. However, significant differences between formally mentored protégés and nonmentored individuals were only found for two of the six organizational socialization scales (no significant differences were found between the two groups with regard to job satisfaction or salary). In summary, the results suggest that there may be some important differences between informal and formal mentoring relationships. Clearly, more research is needed in this area in order to fully understand these differences.



Clark, Frances A. *Total Career Management*. London: McGraw-Hill, 1992, 223 pages.

This book provides a general overview of organizational strategies used to facilitate and manage career development. A portion of the book (pages 70 to 73) deals with formal mentoring programs within organizations. Objectives of these programs may include "high-flyer" development, general development of employees, development of a particular culture after acquisition or

restructuring, accelerated management development, regular succession planning, and stimulating creativity.

The author also describes some problems and benefits associated with formal mentoring programs. Problems cited include conflicts between mentors and supervisors, unwarranted interference by mentors, jealousy felt by nonparticipants, overdependence on the mentor by the protégé, and personality mismatches.



Clutterbuck, David. Mentors who can help your business grow. *Executive Female* 14, 1991, pp. 48-49.

The Small Business Administration's Office of Women's Business Ownership (OWBO) has launched a formal networking/mentoring program for female entrepreneurs. The program links successful female entrepreneurs (mentors) with female business owners whose companies are ready to expand (protégés). The program is now established in all fifty states and has served more than 500 pairs. When interviewed, the protégés identified help with problem solving as the primary benefit. Mentors also valued the relationships because they provided new insights into their own businesses.



Cobb, Jeremy, and John Gibbs. A new, competency-based, on-the-job programme for developing professional excellence in engineering. *Journal of Management Development* 9:3, 1990, pp. 60-72.

Mobil Oil has implemented an on-the-job management-development program for engineers within the organization. It was designed to meet several objectives: communicate the organization's commitment to employee development, increase job satisfaction and performance, provide some structure and direction to the development process, ensure that employee skills will match organizational needs, and ensure that employees are oriented to the program.

Using a competency approach, the program attempts to focus on several key skills (that is, success factors) that make the difference between outstanding and average performance. The program attempts to build these competencies through providing challenging assignments, good role models, and coaching.

The program stresses the importance of supervisory coaching (some variations on the program use nonsupervisory coaches) as a critical determinant of a program's success. It places a heavy emphasis on program orientation and skill training in coaching techniques (participants and their supervisors are oriented in pairs in a three-day workshop). Feedback-and-development-discussion meetings between engineers and their supervisors are an integral piece of the program, and emphasis is placed on the supervisor-engineer relationship as opposed to the performance of the engineer alone. The organization has increasingly recognized that the supervisory coaching component of the program is a critical determinant of its success.

The authors draw some conclusions from their experiences with the program. For example, they cite the importance of a collaborative approach to its development with input from user groups, supervisors, senior managers, professionals, and human resources staff. In addition, they conclude that programs should be customized for intended audiences in order to maximize the fit between the program and the needs of the participants. Also, they place great value on planning for implementation early in the development of a program by making sure that resources and support are available. Finally, the authors cite the importance of structural supports, such as holding supervisors and participants accountable for their objectives.

In their concluding section, the authors cite several characteristics of successful programs, including: (1) the importance of implementation planning; (2) the anchoring of the program with a clear statement of the business and strategic need; (3) the orientation and commitment of participating supervisors; and (4) the existence of visible support from top management.



Coley, Denise B. Mentoring two-by-two. *Training and Development* 50:7, July 1996, pp. 46-48.

A successful mentoring program in a high-tech company is described in this article. Objectives for the program included improved technology transfer, cross-functional networking, skill development, and general employee development. The elements of the program included the formal relationships, career-development assessments for protégés (360-degree assessment), personal-development plans for protégés, applied projects based on protégés' developmental needs, and a core curriculum.

High-potential managers (protégés) and senior managers (mentors) were nominated by senior management and selected by a cross-functional,

senior-management committee. The formal relationships were conceptualized in terms of mentoring triads consisting of a participant (protégé), the participant's immediate manager, and a senior manager (mentor). The role of the immediate manager was to serve as a coach and work with the participant on his or her development plans and applied projects. The senior manager's role was to share knowledge, provide advice, identify goals and resources, and to help set personal development expectations.

In matching the protégés and mentors, a program manager sought input from the potential mentors, the protégés, and the protégés' managers in order to make sure that appropriate assignments were made. An orientation was provided to the mentors, protégés, and supervisors in order to clarify expectations, roles, and responsibilities. Protégés were expected to take the initiative in scheduling regular meetings with their mentor.

The year-long relationship is marked by quarterly progress reports that are forwarded to the program manager. Several types of evaluation data (such as 360-degree assessment data, interviews, and informal feedback) are also collected in order to identify the program's strengths and weaknesses.



Collin, Audrey. Mentoring. *Industrial and Commercial Training* 23:27, March 1988, pp. 23-27.

In addition to providing an overview of mentoring and formal mentoring programs, this article also outlines the major purposes and benefits of formal mentoring programs and the basic steps in the development of an effective program. Program objectives may include one or more of the following: development of high-potentials, general development of employees, change or maintenance of an organizational culture, succession planning, accelerated management development, stimulation of creativity and innovation, development and promotion of minority groups, socialization, and enrichment of mid-life careers.

Benefits cited by organizations include improved succession planning and management development, faster socialization of new employees, improved communication, reduced labor costs, increased productivity, and increased numbers of women achieving promotion. There are also other less tangible outcomes based on the cascading effects of the formal mentoring relationship on other relationships in the organization. For example, individuals who are mentored within a formal program may be more likely to mentor others as they progress in their careers.

The authors also outline eight basic steps in the development of an effective mentoring program: (1) Identify the purpose of the program and obtain top-management support. (2) Allocate responsibilities and identify a program coordinator. (3) Allocate resources to cover selection, training, and monitoring costs. (4) Introduce the program to potential participants and relevant individuals, making it clear that the relationship will be a staff relationship as opposed to a line relationship. (5) Carefully select and match participants. (6) Train participants—training would cover topics such as communication skills, interpersonal skills, various learning styles, and an understanding of the phases of a typical mentoring relationship. (7) Develop a structure for the program by establishing a timetable, providing facilities, installing some recognition and reward systems, and providing support mechanisms for mentors. (8) Monitor the program and make improvements.



Cunningham, J. Barton. Facilitating a mentorship programme. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 14:4, 1993, pp. 15-20.

Based on interviews with mentors and protégés, the author cites some key characteristics of successful mentoring programs and suggests several guidelines to be considered when developing a formal mentoring program. The successful programs are characterized by top-management support, careful selection and matching of participants, thorough orientation emphasizing realistic expectations, clearly stated responsibilities, and established time frames. Successful mentors are effective communicators who are also open, patient, and accessible.

Successful protégés are focused on their goals, people-oriented, and motivated to learn. Mentors and protégés have different perceptions and expectations of the mentoring relationship, and these differences need to be considered by encouraging participants to clarify expectations, define goals, and evaluate progress.

There are two steps in the program-development process: (1) define the organization's need for mentoring and (2) design the program. In defining the mentoring needs, program developers need to identify the future needs and skills of the organization, assess organizational capabilities, and define values for employee development. For example, before designing the actual program, developers need to understand and define the scope of the program, the mission of the program, the degree of top-level support, and the opportunities or threats that may affect the program.

In the development and implementation of the actual program, the author emphasizes that programs should be flexible and voluntary. Mentors and protégés should be carefully selected and matched in an environment of shared responsibility, mutual respect, focus, and flexibility. It is important to create a safe and supportive atmosphere that encourages open communication.

There are four steps to designing a mentoring plan: (1) identify proposals for learning certain skills; (2) identify the barriers to and positive influences on achieving these proposals; (3) identify required actions and resources; and (4) develop a monitoring and evaluation process. In his conclusion, the author emphasizes the importance of organizational culture in determining the success or failure of a mentoring program.



Ettorre, Barbara. Women at work: Breaking the glass . . . or just window dressing? *Management Review* 81:3, 1992, pp. 16-22.

In addition to a general discussion of obstacles and opportunities related to career advancement for women, this article briefly describes formal mentoring programs within two organizations (Chubb Corporation and S.C. Johnson & Son, Inc.) that are aimed at developing female managers. Chubb operates a mentoring program whereby high-potential employees are matched with senior vice-presidents. Each mentor is assigned to three or four protégés and is asked to initiate the mentoring relationships. The organization suggests that the mentor-protégé pairs meet at least four times per year and that mentors be available to act as a sounding board. The mentors are also encouraged to provide protégés with job opportunities and responsibilities in unfamiliar areas.

S.C. Johnson matches executive vice-presidents with high-potential women. Although 3,400 line and staff employees are eligible for the mentoring program, only 12 or so are selected for each phase of the program. The organization limits each mentor, who may be an executive vice-president or division head, to two or three protégés. Sponsors are expected to play many roles for their protégés, including coaching on work performance and development planning. The entire program is evaluated on a yearly basis.



Evered, Roger D., and James C. Selman. Coaching and the art of management. *Organizational Dynamics* 18:2, 1989, pp. 16-32.

Although most of this article focuses on defining and describing informal coaching within organizational settings, the author does outline some formal approaches that organizations may employ in order to facilitate successful coaching relationships between managers and organizational members. Some of these suggestions or ideas include the following: (1) Use workshops or training programs in which effective coaches help managers develop and improve their own coaching skills. (2) Designate specific projects in terms of coaching relationships. (3) Designate a coach for a particular project.



Fagan, M. Michael. Formal vs. informal mentoring in law enforcement. *Career Planning and Adult Development Journal* 4:2, 1988, pp. 40-48.

This field study explores differences between formal and informal mentoring. The participants included twenty-four police officers in a formal mentoring program and twenty-four police officers not being mentored (control group). The control group members were selected and matched with the experimental group on the basis of age, sex, educational level, and marital status. Most of the participants in the control group had been informally mentored at some point in their career.

The mentoring program was actually a training program for new officers, whereby they rode with experienced veterans for three-to-six months. The veterans volunteered to train rookies on a regular basis and to take the responsibility for evaluating the new officer on completion of the training program.

The participants were asked, through surveys, about their mentoring experiences. Findings showed there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of the number of influential veterans, the pattern of identification with the veteran, and similar helping behaviors by their mentor. In addition, the level of informality and degree of personal friendship was about the same for the two groups. There were significant differences between the two groups on three variables: Individuals who had completed the training program reported higher job satisfaction, a stronger work ethic, and less of an age/experience gap with their mentor than the control group.



Farren, Caela, Janet D. Gray, and Beverly L. Kaye. Mentoring: A boon to career development. *Personnel* 61:6, 1984, pp. 20-24.

An overview of an effective formal mentoring program at Merrill Lynch is briefly described in this article. Formal mentoring is part of a six-month career-development program aimed at preparing employees for management positions. The purpose of the mentoring program is to help generate high-level management support and visibility, to build bridges between high-level managers and employees, to help participants learn about the organizational culture, to increase networking, and to provide visibility opportunities. Volunteer mentors (high-level managers) serve as counselors/advisors to four individuals during the six-month program. These "quartets" meet once a month in group and individual meetings, discussing a range of issues from developmental planning to budgeting and organizational structure.

The authors emphasize several guiding principles to developing successful mentoring programs: (1) make mentor participation voluntary; (2) allow mentors freedom in choosing how to interact with protégés; (3) create networking opportunities (across functions and levels) for protégés; (4) provide realistic expectations for protégés; (5) reward mentors and increase their visibility; and (6) include the manager of each protégé in the process.

Effective mentors play a variety of roles including sponsor, teacher, devil's advocate, and coach. The authors conclude that mentoring programs benefit mentors, protégés, and organizations and are an effective means to foster development, organizational commitment, and awareness of organizational culture.



Flynn, Gillian. Group mentoring solves personality conflicts. *Personnel Journal* 74:8, August 1995, p. 22.

Although one-on-one formal mentoring relationships are frequently used to help socialize organizational newcomers, these relationships often fail because of personality conflicts between the individuals. A new model that relies on group mentoring may help minimize personality conflicts and offers an alternative to traditional mentoring programs. Group mentoring typically places four-to-six protégés with an experienced organizational member. Group members exchange ideas, and the mentor or "learning leader" coaches the group on learning as a team.

According to the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), formal mentoring programs will become even more important in light of changing business trends, including the increased need for succession planning due to the retirement of the baby-boomer generation, increased emphasis on diversity in the workplace, and increased competition for skilled employees.



Galen, Michele. Diversity: Beyond the numbers game. *Business Week*, August 14, 1995, pp. 60-61.

Although affirmative-action strategies have traditionally focused on the hiring of minorities and women, many companies are developing more long-term strategies in the development and retention of minorities. Strategies that organizations have used to retain and develop female and minority employees include formal mentoring programs. However, some companies are beginning to realize that mentoring programs and recruitment programs have not been enough to effectively develop and retain talented minority employees.

Recent studies have found that women and minorities hold only 5% of senior-level jobs in companies. In addition, women and minorities leave companies at more than double the rate of white males, costing employers millions of dollars in lost training and productivity. According to a few other studies, African-American and Hispanic professionals still believe that discrimination and bias permeate the workplace.

Several companies (Polaroid, Xerox, Texaco, Dow Chemical, Ceridan, and Ameritech) have developed a host of strategies for retaining minorities. Some of these include focusing on bringing in the best talent as opposed to meeting numerical goals, developing career plans as part of performance reviews, setting up mentoring programs among employees of the same and different races, promoting minorities to decision-making positions as opposed to staff jobs, holding managers accountable for meeting diversity goals, and diversifying the board of directors.



Gaskill, LuAnn R. A conceptual framework for the development, implementation, and evaluation of formal mentoring programs. *Journal of Career Development* 20:2, 1993, pp. 147-160.

Formal mentoring programs have become an increasingly popular initiative for executive development. This popularity has grown, in part, because of the trend toward decentralization in many organizations and the resulting impact on informal mentoring (fewer senior managers are available for informal mentoring). Organizations have responded to this trend by formally linking junior- and senior-level executives in formal mentoring programs. Formal mentoring programs may serve several goals including improved job performance, reduced turnover, succession planning and development, and individual career development.

However, there have also been debates within the literature regarding the value of formal mentoring programs. Critics have argued that mentoring programs may actually impede executive development because of problems associated with them, such as unmet expectations. It is difficult to make any conclusions about the value of formal mentoring programs because of the paucity of research in understanding existing mentoring programs within organizations. Therefore, the author surveyed ninety executive development directors from retail businesses located within the southwestern region of the United States in order to explore some existing formal mentoring programs.

Only nine participants responded that they had an existing program. They were interviewed by phone and were asked about the following program characteristics: program tenure, number of participants, program development, objectives, selection, training, matching of mentors and protégés, program implementation, program content, benefits, and program evaluation.

Mentoring programs within these nine retailing organizations had been in existence for from one to eight years with an average of 4.6 years. Program cycle length ranged from ten weeks to four years with an average of one year. In addition, respondents indicated that upper management was supportive of the program and that the program would be continued within the company. It was noted that the primary reason or impetus for the development of the mentoring programs revolved primarily around high levels of turnover in lower-management levels. It was also noted that senior-management support was a critical determinant of program success.

In addition to gathering some information about these nine programs, the author sought to develop a framework for program development based on the interviews. The conceptual framework consists of program development,

program implementation, and program evaluation. In terms of program development, critical elements of this process include careful selection of protégés and mentors (selection criteria need to be developed), training (namely, orientation programs and skill development workshops for mentors), and matching up of participants (linkages need to be based on important commonalities between protégés and mentors). In terms of program implementation, participants should be encouraged to meet at their own discretion. Finally, mentoring programs should be continually evaluated and modified when necessary.

In summary, formal mentoring programs can provide meaningful benefits to the organization and to the participants. However, successful programs exhibit several important features, including senior-management support and commitment from human resources managers. The program must be viewed as a priority by all levels within the organization with appropriate resources targeted to the program. In addition, protégés and mentors need to be carefully selected according to their qualifications, motivation, and willingness to participate. However, the findings of this study were based on a very small sample size and its conclusions may not generalize to other organizations or settings. Clearly, more research is needed in order to develop a comprehensive framework for developing effective formal mentoring programs.



Geiger, Adrienne H. Measures for mentors. *Training and Development* 46:2, February 1992, pp. 65-67.

The author describes a mentoring-evaluation survey that was developed at Douglas Aircraft Company. This organization has emphasized the importance of informal mentoring within the organization and has also instituted a formal mentoring pilot program for the company's top performers. However, some of the mentoring relationships within the pilot program were ineffective, and it became clear that the organization needed to develop an evaluation tool.

The mentoring survey that was developed focuses on an evaluation of a specific mentoring relationship by a protégé; it can be used for formal or informal mentoring relationships. Protégés are asked to rate mentors on the quality and frequency of interaction and the roles played by the mentor. The mentor roles that are evaluated at Douglas Aircraft include those of communicator, counselor, coach, advisor, broker, referral agent, and advocate. In

addition to serving as an evaluation tool, the survey can be used as a learning tool by providing a framework for mentors and protégés to discuss and assess the relationship.



Geiger-Dumond, Adrienne H., and Susan K. Boyle. Mentoring: A practitioner's guide. *Training and Development* 49:3, March 1995, pp. 51-54.

Douglas Aircraft Company has had a formal mentoring program in place for more than four years. The twelve-month program matches up high-potential employees with senior managers within the organization. Potential protégés are asked to select three potential mentors from a list of volunteers and are matched up with one of the volunteers by a steering committee (each member is allowed a maximum of two protégés). After participating in separate orientation briefings, the mentoring process is initiated with a meeting and a discussion of the protégé's development objectives.

Supervisors also participate in the process by working closely with the mentor and protégé in personal-development planning. Each mentoring pair establishes its goals for the relationship based on developmental objectives set by the protégé and his or her supervisor. In addition, the mentor and the supervisor meet twice during the year-long program to review the employee's progress toward meeting the developmental objectives.

The company believes that the program is an effective tool for improving talent for management jobs, for moving knowledge through the organization, and for providing objective feedback to participants. The program's success is largely based on two important elements: senior-management support and integration of the program into the organization's long-term strategic plan. However, in an evaluation by participants, one criticism of the program was that the meetings were sometimes too infrequent.



Gerstein, Martin. Mentoring: An age old practice in a knowledge-based society. *Journal of Counseling and Development* 64:2, 1985, pp. 156-157.

The author briefly reviews the literature on mentoring and formal mentoring programs and cites several guidelines for effective mentoring programs. A review of the literature provides support for the contention that

mentoring benefits protégés, mentors, and organizations. The author cites several suggestions based on a management-development program at Merrill Lynch for developing effective mentoring programs: voluntary participation of mentors, creation of networking possibilities for protégés, rewards and increased visibility for mentors, and inclusion of protégés' managers in the program (that is, keeping managers informed).



Gibb, Stephen, and David Megginson. Inside corporate mentoring schemes: A new agenda of concerns. *Personnel Review* 22:1, 1993, pp. 40-54.

Formal mentoring programs are increasingly used in British organizations. Paralleling this trend, however, is much confusion within the literature regarding the definition of mentoring and mentoring programs. In addition, very little research has focused on formal mentoring programs in the United Kingdom or on comparisons between British programs and U.S. programs. Because of cultural differences, it would be risky to rely solely on literature based on U.S. organizations to characterize British mentoring programs. For example, mentoring relationships in U.S. companies tend to evolve from and focus on line-management relationships (that is, the mentor is in the protégé's reporting line). Mentoring programs in British organizations tend to revolve around relationships that are out of line-management relationships. Therefore, the authors completed a research study in order to explore the nature of mentoring programs within British organizations.

A survey examined formal mentoring programs within thirty large British organizations. The program coordinator or human resources director within each organization was surveyed by mail, and information that was sought included program goals, mentoring roles, age of program, organizational levels involved, objectives, type of participants, selection-and-matching processes, content, training, benefits, and concerns.

Most of the respondents indicated that mentors played multiple roles, including sharing knowledge, acting as a confidential counselor, facilitating career development, and helping improve performance. The most commonly cited purpose of the program was for self-development, followed by integration and promotion. The most common program participants included new-graduate hires, followed by staff involved in internal programs such as training programs. Surprisingly, mid-level and senior managers were not commonly targeted by the organizations. Most programs depended on the program coordinator for selecting and matching mentors with participants.

Most organizations also used some form of mentoring training, limited the duration of the mentoring relationship to a fixed period of time, and reported that there was some type of formal program evaluation in place.

In addition, the authors identified two distinct mentoring approaches that underlie different program strategies—*mainstream mentoring* and *learning-support mentoring*—and help to contrast American mentoring with British mentoring. Mainstream mentoring refers to the development of organizational talent through traditional methods such as integrating new graduates into the organization. Learning-support mentoring refers to the utilization of senior managers or external tutors for specific learning goals. Research and knowledge on adult psychosocial development, while playing an important role in mainstream mentoring program strategies, would not be helpful in the development of programs focused on learning-support mentoring.

The authors noted several concerns regarding mentoring research and applications to British organizations that revolve around the distinctions between U.S. mentoring and British mentoring. For example, mentoring in British organizations tends to be more multifaceted than in U.S. companies and involves an integration of various roles that goes beyond some of the basic career-development and psychosocial functions observed in U.S. companies. They also discuss several trends in management-development practices that influence mentoring programs (for example, increasing emphasis on continuous learning and self-development).



Grant, Kerry F. Moving out of the middle: Transition to nurse executive. *Nursing Management* 24:11, November 1993, pp. 74-76.

The author describes the formal mentoring program in the Veterans Administration (VA) hospital system. The six-month training program trains newly hired nurse-managers by pairing them with an experienced chief nurse at a VA medical center. After the training program, the nurse-managers are slotted for placement in any of the 172 VA medical centers.

The author also provides some suggestions for newly hired nurses entering the nursing-management training program. These suggestions are to develop clear expectations of the proposed nursing role, prepare for the program by getting personal affairs in order, understand the management process by observing and asking questions, and take advantage of all learning opportunities that arise during the program.



Gray, Marilynne M., and William A. Gray. Planned mentoring: Aiding key transitions in career development. *Career Planning and Adult Development Journal* 6:3, 1990, pp. 27-32.

Formal mentoring programs can be divided into five categories based on the type of career transition, purpose, and participants. The first category of programs focuses on helping children gain awareness about specific careers. The participants in these programs are typically identified as gifted students or at-risk youths who benefit from the career guidance of older individuals such as community volunteers, teachers, and college students. The second type of mentoring program is found in higher education and revolves around an individual's transition into a college environment. The number of mentoring programs in higher education is proliferating, with the majority of programs utilizing faculty members and upper-level undergraduates as mentors who help freshmen adjust to college life. The third type helps individuals make the transition into a new career or new organization. These programs revolve around organizational socialization for new hires and are used by many companies such as EXXON, Eastman Kodak, and AT&T.

The fourth transition type occurs after new hires have become assimilated and proficient in their jobs and now seek new challenges and learning opportunities. Formal mentoring programs in this category revolve around the development and utilization of employee talent through challenging job assignments with mentors. Finally, the fifth type of career transition occurs when middle-level managers seek out career advancement in their jobs. Formal mentoring programs, in these cases, provide organizations with an effective management-development strategy by preparing competent employees for career advancement.

The authors also describe some conclusions and insights regarding planned mentoring programs based on their knowledge and experience. These six insights are: (1) The traditional conceptualization of informal mentoring is inappropriate for planned mentoring programs. (2) Mentoring programs must be custom-designed to be successful. (3) Mentoring programs work best within a larger context as opposed to a stand-alone program. (4) Mentoring programs work best when participants perceive that they have ownership of the program. (5) A pilot program should be implemented before full implementation of a program. (6) Inclusive mentoring programs (those that include

all participants who benefit from the program) work better than exclusive programs.



Gray, William A. Components for developing a successful formal mentoring program in business, the professions, education, and other settings. In *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring*. W. A. Gray & M. M. Gray, Eds. Vancouver, British Columbia: International Association on Mentoring, 1986, pp. 15-22.

The major components of successful formal mentoring programs are described in this article. Although informal mentoring can have very positive effects on individual careers, many individuals are not fortunate enough to find a mentor. Women and minorities especially have difficulty finding informal mentors. Formal programs complement informal relationships by providing more opportunities for mentoring in the workplace.

The author also cites, based on his earlier work, four major components of successful mentoring programs. First, it is essential that participants are carefully selected and paired. The criteria for selection should be communicated to all relevant individuals and participation in the program should be voluntary. Second, there should be formal, extensive training of mentors, protégés, and support staff. Gray has developed a particular training model that outlines the individual roles in the relationship and emphasizes the importance of changes or progression in the relationship over time. The third essential component of an effective mentoring program entails the monitoring of the mentoring process. In the pursuit of objectivity, the author recommends that outside consultants be used for monitoring. This monitoring should occasionally result in modifications to the program, retraining of participants, and reassignment of mentors. Finally, effective mentoring programs need to be formally evaluated in order to determine impact (for example, benefits, cost effectiveness, and problems) and to obtain recommendations for improvement.



- Gray, William A. Developing a planned mentoring program to facilitate career development. *Career Planning and Adult Development Journal* 4:2, 1988, pp. 9-16.

Based on a review of the literature, three types of mentoring are identified in this article: informal life mentoring, career mentoring (both informal and planned), and planned-project mentoring. Informal life mentoring refers to a long-term, informal mentoring relationship (two-to-fifteen years) between an experienced senior person and a young promising employee, in which the mentor exerts a comprehensive influence (both personal and professional) on a protégé's life.

Career mentoring is typically a shorter process that focuses on career advancement and can be initiated informally or formally by an organization. These programs include the following components: specified career-development goals that coincide with organizational development goals and culture, careful selection of volunteers to be mentors and protégés, careful matching of participants, training in skills needed to fulfill essential roles and functions, continuous monitoring of the mentoring process, and evaluation of results.

Planned-project mentoring is even shorter than career mentoring, lasting four-to-eighteen months. Mentors fulfill similar roles and functions as they do in career mentoring, but the mentoring and assistance revolve around a specific project or problem. Bell Labs and 3M both implemented planned-project mentoring programs in order to foster creativity within the workplace.

The differences between mentoring and coaching are also highlighted in this article. Although coaching typically involves on-the-job training in the form of instruction, demonstration, and constructive feedback, mentoring provides many additional functions and plays a broader role in helping protégés develop as people and advance their careers. Additional roles played by mentors include confidant, teacher, sponsor, role model, talent developer, door opener, protector, and leader. On-the-job coaching is widely employed in large organizations; in fact, coaching and mentoring are the third most popular management-development strategies, behind job rotation and internal executive-education programs.

Although informal mentoring relationships have many positive benefits, only a small percentage of capable people receive this type of mentoring and its benefits, which leads to frustration, resentment, and turnover. Planned, or formal, mentoring programs can be an effective organizational strategy for developing capable employees and can be made available to a larger group of individuals than informal mentoring. The essential components of a planned

mentoring program include the identification of program goals, the effective linking of the program to the organization's career planning and organizational development efforts, careful selection and matching procedures with voluntary participation, training of participants (including mentors, protégés, and support staff), monitoring of the mentoring process (with retraining if necessary), and evaluation of results.



Gunn, Erik. Mentoring: The democratic version. *Training* 32:8, August 1995, pp. 64-67.

The author states that the recent trend toward increased emphasis on formal mentoring programs in organizations has been paralleled by a gradual change in the structure and content of these programs. Today's formal mentoring programs tend to be more tightly focused and shorter in duration than in the past. In addition, organizations are moving away from programs that focus only on minorities and women and toward programs that are available to a wider group of employees. There has also been an increased emphasis on group mentoring, whereby participants are encouraged to form relationships with peers in addition to relationships with senior managers. This group approach is both a potential solution to the small numbers of mentors that might be available and is a positive strategy for promoting teamwork. Finally, the focus of the mentoring relationship has changed, with more pairing for specific skills as opposed to a focus on broad-based career-development issues.

In addition to outlining some of the recent trends in corporate mentoring programs, the author also describes several existing programs. For example, Ameritech Corporation teams up newcomers with experienced employees, called reciprocal guides, for two-to-three months. The goal of the program is to help newcomers gain some awareness of the corporate climate. General Electric's corporate mentoring program has evolved from a program for minorities and women to a program that is available to every employee. CSX Transportation's program for hourly, managerial, and professional employees links these participants with senior-level managers for a one-year period (about 130 employees have completed the program). Douglas Aircraft has a highly structured mentoring program for high-potential employees.

Two mentoring programs are described that have failed, one at the Internal Revenue Service and one at a city newspaper. The program at the IRS was discontinued when managerial ranks were thinned, creating a short-

age of potential mentors. The program at the city newspaper (*The Norfolk Virginian-Pilot*) was discontinued when its original creator and champion moved to a new job.

Based on the case studies, the author makes several suggestions for organizations that wish to implement formal mentoring programs. First, program developers should make a business case for the program and obtain top-management support. Second, to avoid potential backlash, the program should not be limited to certain groups (for instance, minorities or women). Third, participants should be provided with clear expectations and appropriate training. Fourth, it should be made clear to participants that the program is not a guaranteed path to promotion. Finally, selection criteria for mentors should be clearly developed and communicated to relevant individuals.



Heery, William. Diversity management: Corporate mentoring can break the glass ceiling. *HR Focus* 71:5, May 1994, pp. 17-18.

Heery argues that organizations need to recognize the limitations of informal mentoring and initiate the development and implementation of formal mentoring programs. Further, he contends that the best route to successful diversity and career advancement among women and minorities is by adopting corporate mentoring. Successful corporate mentoring programs have nine basic features: top-management involvement, shared goals and values, open applications (that is, program should be open to all high-potential junior executives as opposed to one particular gender or ethnic group), selection criteria that parallel hiring criteria, itineraries that reflect program goals, high standards, regular contact among participants, clearly visible expectations, and the retention of a diverse pool of high performers. The author also emphasizes that team-to-team mentoring (that is, a team of senior executives mentoring a team of junior executives) should replace one-on-one mentoring and that the program should be open to all high-potential junior executives.



Hunt, David M. Formal versus informal mentoring: Towards a framework. In *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring*. W. A. Gray & M. M. Gray, Eds. Vancouver, British Columbia: International Association on Mentoring, 1986, pp. 8-14.

This paper focuses on the clarification of differences between formal and informal mentoring processes based on two dimensions: goal focus and social intensity. Although traditional (informal) mentoring relationships are primarily individually focused and high in social intensity, planned (formal) relationships focus on organizational goals and display moderate social intensity. The author also cites some key characteristics of planned mentoring programs in terms of context, goal focus, selection and matching, relationship stages, and outcomes.



Jacoby, David. Rewards make the mentor. *Personnel* 66:12, December 1989, pp. 10-14.

Although it is generally assumed that the design of a mentoring program has an important impact on program success, the importance of incorporating reward systems into mentoring initiatives is typically overlooked. Jacoby argues that mentoring programs in organizations should monitor, evaluate, and reward managers for serving as mentors. Mentors should be provided with resources and time to devote to mentoring activities. Managers' performance as mentors should be tracked and evaluated by employees and protégés, and these evaluations should be incorporated into the performance-appraisal system. Rewards that are tied to the mentoring function should be standardized across the organization; objectives should be set in advance with measurable criteria, and rewards should be consistent.

Rewards may include increases to base pay, bonus pay, perks, privileges, status, responsibilities, and promotion. Implementation of the mentoring reward system is likely to be met with resistance by organizational members but should move forward with a focus on the goals of the reward system. In addition, Jacoby also notes that certain managers are simply not ready to mentor others and should not be included in the mentoring process. Finally, the importance of marketing the program, both internally and externally, is emphasized.



Jorgenson, Joan. *Mentoring Programs: An Overview*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Public Administration, June 1992, 17 pages.

Based on a literature review, this report provides a general overview of mentoring and mentoring programs in the public and private sectors. Many companies have been using mentoring programs to advance organizational goals in the areas of recruitment, retention, staff and executive development, affirmative action, and career advancement. Research has suggested that participation in a mentoring process benefits the organization, the mentor, and the protégé.

Some organizational benefits include the passing on of organizational culture and institutional knowledge, the reinforcement and encouragement of teamwork, the reduction of stress, and the decrease of turnover within the organization. Benefits to the mentors include increased satisfaction, recognition from others, and increased power and network bases within the organization. Finally, protégé benefits include career development and advancement, access to knowledge about corporate politics, challenging positions and assignments, assistance, and skill development.

The author also cites some potential disadvantages of mentoring and mentoring programs. For example, mentors may provide poor advice or allow their own goals to interfere with those of their protégé. Other potential disadvantages cited include resentment by co-workers and supervisors, unhealthy relationships, and relationships that last too long and become unproductive.

An effective mentoring program can be developed through careful planning, coordination, and communication. Characteristics of successful mentoring programs include voluntary participation, skipped-level and cross-functional pairing, flexible duration, one-on-one mentoring, a no-fault exit provision, integration with total development efforts, a high priority on program evaluation, clear communication of mentoring policies, and a campaign to promote the mentoring program. In addition, mentoring programs should establish clear objectives with top-management support, allocate resources to accomplish objectives, and establish a program that meets the needs of the organizational culture (for instance, careful screening and pairing of participants, training, monitoring and evaluation).

The author also briefly describes several successful mentoring programs—McDonnell Douglas; City of Long Beach, California; U.S. Department of Agriculture; Navy Medical Department; Executive Committee; American Leadership Forum; U.S. Small Business Administration; and S.C. Johnson. For example, McDonnell Douglas attributes the success of its

formal mentoring program for high-potential employees to careful planning and development. High-potential employees are paired with senior managers who assist them with rotational assignments, career goals, and company politics and procedures.



Kaye, Beverly, and Betsy Jacobson. Mentoring: A group guide. *Training and Development* 49:4, April 1995, pp. 22-27.

This article describes an innovative mentoring program that matches up senior managers, called *learning leaders*, with groups of three-to-six participants. The year-long program, designed to accelerate the development of high-potential employees, including minorities, attempts to reframe mentoring. In contrast to the traditional format that matches up a participant with a senior manager to facilitate a one-on-one developmental relationship, the authors have developed a program that focuses on a learning partnership among a group of participants, their immediate managers, and the learning leader. In addition to building team skills and interpersonal skills, group mentoring provides a forum whereby members learn from each other and from the learning leader in a setting that emphasizes cooperation and growth.

In this setting, the learning leaders are thought of as partners rather than "patriarchs" and act as leaders of group learning and facilitators of group growth. Based on what is learned from feedback (for example, from 360-degree-feedback instruments), participants engage in individual developmental assignments. The learning groups and learning leaders meet at least once a month to share stories and learn from one another. The program strongly emphasizes learning from experience and the experience of others, and places a heavy emphasis on peer learning.

The task of the learning leader is to create an environment where group members can learn from each other as well as benefit from the leader's experience and knowledge. Specific activities might include offering advice from experiences, providing honest feedback to individual group members, asking questions and promoting dialogue, offering suggestions for discussion topics and learning projects, and facilitating networking between group members and other organizational members.

The authors define five functions of learning leaders (guide, ally, catalyst, insider, and advocate) and provide some details on these functions or roles. For example, in the guide function, the learning leader acts as a coach by drawing on his or her experiences to help others reflect on their skills and

opportunities. The ally role entails acting as a candid sounding board by actively listening to group members and providing feedback. As a catalyst, the learning leader helps to motivate the group toward action. In addition to the important role that a learning leader plays, other key stakeholders play important roles in successful learning groups. For example, protégés must take an active role in the process and are held accountable for the program's success. Managers should also be very involved in the process by staying informed and providing support and encouragement. Finally, human resources practitioners need to maintain responsibility for developing, monitoring, and revising the program as needed.



Kaye, Beverly, and Betsy Jacobson. Mentoring: A new model for building learning organizations. *OD Practitioner* 28:3, 1996, pp. 35-44.

Based on their experiences with mentoring programs, the authors propose a new approach for building effective programs based on five insights about what comprises effective mentoring relationships: (1) Deliberate learning is the cornerstone of effective relationships. (2) Mentors need to share their successes and failures with protégés. (3) Leaders need to tell their stories. (4) Mentoring is not a discrete event but a synthesis of ongoing events and experiences. (5) Successful mentoring is based on sharing responsibility for learning.

In order to build on these insights, the authors propose that mentoring take place in learning groups, where a mentor acts as a *learning leader* for a group of about six protégés who can learn from the leader and from each other. An ideal learning leader would be a senior employee on a technical or management track with a broad organizational experience base. In addition to being successful in the field, this individual would have contact with a wide network of individuals, a great deal of accumulated experience, substantial power, a history of fostering employee development, control of resources, a broad knowledge base, success in managing teams, and a reputation for technical or functional competence. Some personal attributes of successful mentors include a sense of humor, emotional openness, a quick mind, an ability to help groups reach the essence of an issue, and ease with groups.

As opposed to a traditional view of the mentor as a patriarch, the authors' model views the mentor or learning leader as a learning partner. In this role, learning leaders may provide several functions, including guide, ally, catalyst, savvy insider, and advocate. The ideal learning group is typi-

cally comprised of protégés who have much expertise and who are viewed as having high potential by the organization. In addition, group diversity is an important attribute of successful learning groups. A learning group typically requires some training regarding roles and responsibilities, as well as on using dialogue as a way to interact in group meetings. Learning groups typically meet with the learning leader once a month for several hours, with all participants sharing the responsibility for the learning that takes place.

The authors recommend that learning group participants take on specific developmental assignments in order to facilitate the transfer of learning to their jobs. These might include platform assignments (temporary assignments or short-term projects), on-the-job assignments, and dedicated assignments. The authors also emphasize the importance of gaining the commitment and support of the participants' line managers in order to facilitate the learning process. In fact, mentoring should be conceptualized as a three-party partnership, whereby the learning leader, the protégé, and the protégé's manager work together and share responsibility for learning and development.



Kaye, Beverly, and Betsy Jacobson. Reframing mentoring. *Training and Development* 50:8, August 1996, pp. 44-47.

Based on an examination of mentoring successes and failures, the authors identify five lessons or building blocks for reframing mentoring and enhancing the effectiveness of formal programs. These building blocks are as follows: (1) The role of the mentor is to promote intentional learning. (2) Mentors need to share both successes and failures. (3) Mentors should share real-life stories that can offer insight for protégés. (4) Mentoring is an ongoing event as opposed to a one-time event. (5) Successful mentoring is characterized by shared responsibility among the mentor, the protégés, and the protégés' managers.

It is argued that organizations need to shift their collective mind-set about learning from one that is reductionist in nature (viewing mentoring as a one-time, one-on-one relationship) to one that encourages expansionist thinking. This new mind-set redefines formal mentoring as organizational initiatives to involve groups of employees led by organizational veterans who are networked with the employees' immediate managers. The mentor, or learning leader, works with four-to-six employees who can learn from each other as well as from the learning leader. The new mentoring approach

creates a partnership among participants, learning leaders, and supervisors that is based on empowerment and shared responsibility for the learning and growth that takes place.



Keele, Reba L., Kathy Buckner, and Sheri J. Bushnell. Formal mentoring programs are no panacea. *Management Review* 76:2, February 1987, pp. 67-68.

The authors argue that too much emphasis has been placed on formal mentoring programs as a critical catalyst for the development of managers. Although mentoring relationships do provide certain developmental functions, a wide range of potential relationships, such as social networks, provide the same functions. Furthermore, mentors who are typically selected to participate in formal mentoring programs because of their recognized talent and ability to teach are also typically the type of individuals who would mentor others without the structure of a formal program.

However, the authors do propose that successful mentoring programs have three common characteristics. First, mentoring programs should be only a small component of a larger management-development strategy for selected fast-track employees. Second, there should be an emphasis on coaching rather than mentoring; they recommend that the relationships are limited by a task-oriented focus and by a specific time period or job goal. Third, there should be a supportive organizational climate for the program with formal or informal rewards for participating.

Several potential negative effects of formal mentoring programs are described, including unmet expectations, less initiative on the part of the protégé, and exclusion of talented individuals. Finally, the authors compare mentor relationships to social networks and recommend that social networks be considered as options because of their broader availability.



Kizilos, Peter. Take my mentor, please! *Training* 27:4, April 1990, pp. 49-55.

Relying on several published articles, the author critiques formal mentoring programs and describes their potential negative outcomes. Mentoring programs are viewed as a trend that will fade with time. Drawbacks of programs include discontent, anger, mismatches, lack of effective

mentors, and resentment resulting from forced matching of mentors and protégés. Protégés may, when investing most of their energy with a mentor, actually feel quite isolated from the rest of the organization. In addition, most existing programs more closely reflect sponsorship than mentoring.

Mentoring involves a strong emotional bond that develops over time and is very difficult to replicate in a formal program. In addition, programs frequently fail due to organizational cultures that do not value personal development. The author argues that individuals should develop social networks that don't rely on one person. He further states that relationships with many people in the organization will accomplish the same result as a single-mentor relationship, without the potential limitations.

Effective programs at the Internal Revenue Service and Ortho Pharmaceutical Corporation are briefly described to demonstrate that with careful attention such programs can be successful. These programs are voluntary, and their careful matching procedures recognize the importance of personal chemistry. Informal social meetings are used to help prospective mentors and protégés pair up, and participants are given a great deal of discretion in choosing a mentor or protégé. Program coordinators communicate regularly with the mentoring pairs in order to ensure that both parties are satisfied with the relationship. The programs are fairly structured but rely on the personal chemistry within the relationships to drive them. The program at the Internal Revenue Service also relies on cross-functional mentoring to increase the degree of trust and openness in the relationship.



Kram, Katherine E., and Madeline C. Bragar. Development through mentoring: A strategic approach. In *Career Development: Theory and Practice*. D. Montross and C. Shinkman, Eds. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1991, pp. 221-254.

This book chapter reviews the history of formal mentoring programs and discusses the components of those that are successful. Only informal mentoring existed before the 1970s, with development activities limited to training programs, job rotations, and some career coaching. Informal mentoring was limited, for the most part, to high-potential managers who hoped to advance to senior management. Factors that contributed to the first attempts at formalizing mentoring included the increasing number of women and minorities in management positions, the creation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and affirmative-action programs, and ad-

vances in knowledge regarding adult and career development (for instance, more emphasis on individuals' capacities to learn new skills).

Most of these early programs were designed for selected groups of women, minorities, and recent college graduates. During the 1980s, the number of existing programs rose rapidly and programs were also designed for high-potential managers. Research on managerial learning that has emphasized the importance of developmental relationships also fueled this focus on formal programs.

In addition to reviewing the history of formal mentoring programs, the authors outline several components, identified in the available literature, as critical to a program's effectiveness. These are clearly defined program goals and objectives, selection processes that emphasize voluntary participation and careful matching of pairs, orientation programs for participants that provide training and support, communication processes that inform participants and nonparticipants about the program's intent and content, a monitoring and evaluation process, and a designated coordinator for the program. Emphasis is placed on the importance of linking the program with the business strategy of the organization in order to ensure a good fit with other organizational practices.

The authors also detail several limitations of planned mentoring programs, such as negative experiences, limited availability, unintended impact on participants' peers and supervisors, and overreliance on one type of developmental relationship. They emphasize the importance of taking a broader approach to enhancing developmental relationships that are directly linked to key strategic concerns and consistent with current management practices.

Implementing a formal mentoring program represents significant change for an organization, and both its formal and informal aspects must be taken into account when planning for it. Such changes as rewards or changes in job assignments may affect the quality of developmental relationships more than formal mentoring programs. The authors suggest four steps in any strategy to improve developmental relationships within an organizational setting: (1) align developmental efforts with strategic business needs; (2) assess the impact of current practices; (3) identify and choose action alternatives; and (4) monitor, evaluate and follow-up. Actions taken to improve mentoring processes and other interventions should bring both formal and informal practices in alignment with current strategic concerns and employees' learning needs. The article provides much detail and advice

on creating conditions within organizations that foster learning through others.



Lawrie, John. How to establish a mentoring program. *Training and Development Journal* 41:3, March 1987, pp. 25-27.

Lawrie offers advice on the development and maintenance of formal mentoring programs within organizations. He identifies five important functions that trainers have in assuring quality programs. First, it is important to identify jobs that will benefit from mentoring, such as those involving large dollar investments or linked to customer relations. Second, trainers need to carefully select and train the participating mentors. To select good mentors, trainers should try to identify individuals who like teaching and guiding, who are identified as "people developers," and who may already engage in informal mentoring. In addition, mentors should be trained in group meetings with other mentors and in individual follow-up sessions. The training should emphasize the importance of three formal learning concepts: Positive reinforcement should be used, learning plateaus should be expected, and learning should be paced.

Third, trainers need to guide the protégés by clarifying expectations, explaining the program, and encouraging them to keep a "learning log." Fourth, trainers should control the quality of the learning; and fifth, they should validate the program. Benefits of mentoring programs include learning, behavioral change, fostering of teamwork, and mentor growth.



Lean, Elizabeth. Cross-gender mentoring: Downright upright and good for productivity. *Training and Development Journal* 37:5, 1983, pp. 61-65.

Cross-gender mentoring (both formal and informal) entails opportunities, risks, and benefits that go beyond same-sex mentoring relationships. Risks of cross-gender mentoring include organizational cultures that do not support power-sharing between men and women, the high visibility typical of such relationships, unfounded gossip and speculation regarding sexual involvement, and actual romantic involvement that occasionally occurs.

The unique opportunities associated with cross-gender mentoring, however, can outweigh the problems. These include increased opportunities

for women to work with senior managers, opportunities for women to gain insight into how men think and work, valuable relationships that bring different strengths to different projects, and the educational ripple effect that occurs by providing chances for effective cross-gender relationships to set examples for the rest of the organization.

In addition, the author focuses on the importance of correctly matching participants in formal mentoring programs and on tying the performance-appraisal system into the program (for instance, making appraisals part of the format for developmental planning). She also emphasizes the importance of education, communication, and awareness of the program for cross-gender mentoring.



Loeb, Marshall. The new mentoring. *Fortune* 132:11, November 27, 1995, p. 213.

Informal mentoring relationships are becoming increasingly scarce as a potential strategy for individuals looking for development and career advancement. One reason for this decrease in informal mentoring may be high-level executives' wariness of taking on mentoring roles because of their own feelings of job insecurity and concerns that they might be replaced by their protégés. The author suggests that individuals looking for developmental relationships should create a board of advisors that includes individuals inside and outside the organization. An internal board of mentors that can assist individuals with managing their careers and provide feedback should include a senior-level manager, a peer, and a subordinate.

In addition, formal mentoring programs are becoming increasingly used within organizations as low-cost strategies for transferring skills and retaining valued employees. Although they were created and used to help women and minorities, programs are now typically open to all managers and are used by many companies, including Avon, MTV Networks, Xerox, and General Electric.



Mainiero, Lisa A. Muddling through: The anguish of apprenticeship. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 7:5, 1986, pp. 3-7.

An apprenticeship is a process by which an individual learns a trade or craft through practical experience under the guidance of a more experienced professional. Using applied apprenticeships within the field of organizational development as a framework, this article presents an overview of structured organizational apprenticeships and presents a developmental model for the apprenticeship process. The apprenticeship period is regarded as a critical stage of development by which a novice develops complex skills and learns about the organization. Based on her own experiences as an apprentice, the author emphasizes the importance of sponsor support and encouragement to the success of the apprenticeship.

The author outlines three stages of the developmental model for the apprenticeship process: Stage 1, role ambiguity, is conceptualized as the initial period in which the apprentice experiences identity confusion and information overload when the relationship is initiated. Stage 2, role conflict, is defined as the period of time in which the apprentice is expected to play two conflicting roles (learner and expert). It is believed that this role conflict leads to performance anxiety, stress, and disillusionment regarding the position. Stage 3, role creation and differentiation, occurs when an apprentice is provided with the skills and freedom to define his or her own role. The importance of positive feedback to the success of this stage is emphasized. Further, effective sponsors clearly define the role of the apprenticeship before the training period begins and clearly outline the expectations of the apprenticeship process.



Mann, Robert W., and Julie M. Staudenmier. Strategic shifts in executive development. *Training and Development* 45, July 1991, pp. 37-40.

In an attempt to understand the current and future challenges in executive development, the authors surveyed seventy-seven large organizations in the United States and Canada. Directors of executive development were asked to rate a list of executive-education and development topics in terms of how much emphasis they received in their firms in the past and how much emphasis they will receive in the next three-to-five years. These topics included leadership, managing human performance, becoming customer-focused, implementing business strategies, managing organizational change, develop-

ing business strategies, global strategy and competition, team building, total quality control, communication skills, and interpersonal skills. Respondents indicated that all of these topics will receive increased emphasis in the next three-to-five years.

Respondents were also asked to evaluate the emphasis that will be given to ongoing developmental activities such as mentoring, developmental job assignments, and coaching. Although details of the study (methodology, survey items, and so forth) were not recorded here, the authors did cite some conclusions: Much more emphasis will be placed on ongoing developmental activities, such as mentoring, one-on-one coaching, developmental job assignments, and action-learning, as opposed to formal training programs. These ongoing developmental activities will be particularly emphasized for top-level executives and high-potential managers.



Marsh, Linda. Good manager: Good coach? What is needed for effective coaching? *Industrial & Commercial Training* 24:9, 1992, pp. 3-8.

Marsh briefly describes a coaching program within a large computer company that is aimed at helping technical consultants develop their selling skills. The program was developed after a company reorganization that required the technical consultants to build individual accounts and develop sales skills. Neither the consultants nor their managers had any sales experience prior to the reorganization. Twenty-two consultants and their managers participated in the program, which consisted of training in both selling and coaching. After training, managers were expected to help their sales consultants apply their newly learned sales skills on the job.

However, in practice, there was much variability in the quantity and quality of coaching that took place. Based on interviews, observations, and questionnaires with the participants and their managers, the author attempted to identify effective coaching skills and characteristics. Based on this data, she cited six dimensions of a good coaching style: (1) being open to ideas; (2) creating a supportive atmosphere; (3) giving specific feedback; (4) demonstrating personal interest and involvement; (5) setting clear targets and follow-up assignments, and (6) planning. In addition, a good working relationship between each participant and his or her manager appeared to be a necessary but not sufficient requirement of a good coaching relationship.

Interestingly, the data also implied that managerial competence was not associated with coaching competence. More specifically, individuals who

were effective managers or sellers were not necessarily perceived of as effective coaches. Coaching was perceived of as a set of skills distinct from managerial skills.



Martinez, Michelle N. Mentoring with an equality twist. *HR Magazine* 40:1, January 1995, p. 16.

A formal mentoring program that was recently initiated at the Bank of Montreal is briefly described in this article. In the pilot program, twenty volunteer executives were matched up with forty employees, with each mentor being assigned to one female protégé and one male protégé. The program is open to both high-potential employees and employees who are not targeted as high-potential; the organization believes that both groups of individuals can improve their potential.



McCauley, Cynthia D., and Dianne P. Young. Creating developmental relationships: Roles and strategies. *Human Resource Management Review* 3:3, 1993, pp. 219-230.

This article explores the broader topic of developmental relationships within organizations. Formal mentoring relationships between junior and senior managers are not the focus here. Rather, by examining two training programs that use other types of formal developmental relationships (for instance, those between peers and between boss and subordinate) in terms of what makes the relationships developmental and what the roles are in the relationships, the authors provide relevant insights that apply to formal mentoring.

The degree to which a relationship is developmental is defined as the degree to which the experience motivates an individual to want to learn and grow, exposes them to learning opportunities, and provides support for the development. For a relationship to be developmental, it must affect motivation, opportunity, and support for learning. Specific roles played by individuals in developmental relationships include motivational roles (for instance, feedback provider, role model, accountant), opportunity roles (for instance, expert, dialogue partner, practice partner, counselor, feedback provider), and support roles (for instance, cheerleader, reinforcer).

The authors describe two leadership-training programs that try to expand managers' learning opportunities by adding developmental relationships as part of their strategy. Both programs were developed by the Center for Creative Leadership. The first, called Chief Executive Officer Leadership Development Program, is designed for school superintendents. In this program, superintendents are encouraged to form a network of peers with other participants and are matched with an executive facilitator (an experienced superintendent from another part of the country) who helps the participant over a year-long process.

The second program, called LeaderLab®, is designed for leaders and managers from all types of organizations. In LeaderLab, participants are asked to establish relationships with colleagues in order to receive help with action-planning, feedback, and emotional support. In addition, participants work with process advisors—staff professionals who help them with their action-planning and follow up with them after the program.



Mendleson, Jack L., A. Keith Barnes, and Gregory Horn. The guiding light to corporate culture. *Personnel Administrator* 34, 1989, pp. 70-72.

A formal mentoring program at Southland Corporation's Pacific-Western division (7-Eleven stores) is briefly described. At 7-Eleven, new field representatives are assigned to a sponsor or mentor. Most of the sponsors are regional or district managers who provide guidance, support, and feedback. Based on their observations of the program and feedback provided by participants, the authors make several suggestions regarding formal mentoring programs relating to program policies, training, and reward systems.

In terms of program policies, the following program characteristics should be present: clear program objectives, top-management support, program monitoring and evaluation, and voluntary participation after a required mentoring phase. In terms of training and rewarding, the authors emphasize the importance of careful selection of mentors, orientation and training of mentors, and organizational support.



Moulton, Harper W., and Arthur A. Fickel. *Executive Development: Preparing for the 21st Century*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1993, pp. 22-23.

This book addresses the concepts and issues of executive development and learning, focusing on recent trends and implications for future executive needs. As part of a chapter on developmental assignments and experiential learning, the authors briefly describe a tool called *assistant-to assignments*. IBM and other large corporations have used this tool as a major developmental device for young, high-potential managers. These are typically one-year assignments as an administrative or executive assistant to a major corporate-level executive. They provide the opportunity for top-level exposure and the opportunity to participate in the management process at senior levels. Almost every senior executive at IBM has held assistant-to positions at early career stages. The authors also note that some organizations (for example, General Electric) are strongly opposed to these types of assignments, arguing that the positions are frequently harmful, are a source of confusion for the organization, and are an inefficient use of critical resources.



Murray, Margo, and Marna A. Owen. *Beyond the myths and magic of mentoring: How to facilitate an effective mentoring program*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1991, 210 pages.

This book examines facilitated (or formal) mentoring programs in detail, and provides many examples, definitions, insights, and suggestions for implementing them. The authors detail the functions of mentoring and outline the benefits to the mentor, the protégé, and the organization. Organizations utilizing mentoring programs include American College, AT&T, AT&T Bell Laboratories, California Women in Government, Federal Express, General Accounting Office, General Motors, Glendale Federal Savings, Hughes Aircraft, J.C. Penney, Jewel Companies (known earlier as The Jewel Tea Company), Merrill Lynch, and New York University. Step-by-step advice is provided for assessing organizational readiness and implementing facilitated mentoring programs.

Chapter 1 provides a brief history of mentoring, along with definitions for facilitated mentoring and terminology used in mentoring processes. The authors define facilitated mentoring as "a structure and series of processes designed to create effective mentoring relationships, guide the desired behav-

ior change of those involved, and evaluate the results for the protégés, the mentors and the organization" (p. 5). The primary purpose of these formal relationships is to develop the skills and leadership abilities of less experienced organizational members. Mentors are differentiated from sponsors and role models, based on their activities and role responsibilities. For example, mentors typically perform additional functions along with all of the sponsoring and role-modeling activities. These functions include providing feedback and coaching activities, assisting with career planning, providing insight into organizational missions and goals, serving as a confidant, and maintaining the integrity of the relationship.

Chapter 2 describes some examples of positive mentoring relationships in addition to outlining some recent trends and reasons for the increased interest in formal mentoring programs. The number of formal mentoring programs in industry, education, and government is growing at a rapid rate. In addition to the proliferation of programs in U.S. companies, there is also a surge of interest in other countries. The increased interest in facilitated mentoring may derive from several factors, including the need for business leadership, the irrelevance of theory-based formal education to real-world management and administrative needs, dissatisfaction with the functional illiteracy of entry-level employees, disenchantment with traditional training programs, the expanding awareness of performance technology, the need to meet affirmative-action goals, the awareness of the needs of an increasingly diverse workforce, recognition of increasing labor/management cooperation, the recognition of the changes caused by restructuring companies, and the increased need for succession planning and management development.

Chapter 3 examines the benefits and potential problems of formal mentoring from an organizational perspective. Benefits to organizations that use such programs include increased productivity, cost effectiveness (low costs associated with maintaining the program), improved recruitment efforts, increased organizational communication, maintaining the motivation of senior people, enhancement of services offered by the organization, and improvements in strategic and succession planning.

In addition to outlining the potential benefits, the chapter also outlines five potential challenges or negative aspects of formal mentoring programs. First, participants with few advancement opportunities within the organization may feel more frustrated by participating in a mentoring program. Second, a formal mentoring program will not be successful if the organization is not fully committed to supporting the initiative. Third, organizations may encounter difficulties in attempting to coordinate formal mentoring programs

with other training or human resources programs. Fourth, it may be difficult to convince organizational decision-makers to implement a program because of the lack of data supporting its effectiveness. Finally, cross-functional pairing may entail complicated and expensive administration.

Chapters 4 and 5 outline the benefits and drawbacks of mentoring programs from the perspectives of the protégé and the mentor. The most important benefits for the protégé include targeted development activities, increased likelihood of success, less time spent in the wrong position, higher performance expectations, and increased awareness of the organization. Possible drawbacks for the protégé include neglect of core job, role conflict between the boss and the mentor, unrealistic expectations about promotion, inability to take personal responsibility for development, feelings of jealousy by nonparticipants, lack of commitment by mentors, and mentors who take credit for protégés' work.

Mentor benefits include enhanced self-esteem, revitalized interest in work, close relationships with protégés, financial rewards, fulfillment of developmental needs, and professional assistance on work projects. Potential problems for the mentor include pressure to take on the mentoring role, lack of mentoring skills, inability to take the coaching and feedback role seriously, lack of time, lack of perceived benefits, possessiveness of protégés, not letting protégés take necessary risks for learning, and resentment of protégés.

Chapter 6 presents a generic, step-by-step model for a formal mentoring program. The model identifies thirteen steps: identify protégés, complete developmental diagnosis, recruit mentor candidates, screen mentor candidates, select mentors, orient mentors, orient protégés, negotiate agreement or structure of relationship (for instance, frequency of meetings, expectations, development plan), execute development plan, engage in periodic meetings between mentors and protégés, report to program coordinator, and conclude relationship. Some specific mentoring programs are described, including programs at the U.S. General Accounting Office, an unnamed department of the federal government, a small accounting firm, and two colleges.

Chapter 7 presents a strategy for determining the readiness of an organization wanting to implement a formal mentoring program. The steps involved in this process include determining the organization's future succession-planning needs, examining the organization's commitment to human resources development, determining the scope of the mentoring program, and assessing the organization's ability to sustain the characteristics of successful mentoring programs (for example, voluntary participation, skipped-level mentors, cross-functional pairing, one-on-one mentoring, no-fault conclu-

sions, integration with total development efforts, high priority for evaluation, communication of policies and procedures, and promotion of the program).

Guidelines for defining the role of mentor and making that role work well are presented in Chapter 8. Typical characteristics of effective mentors are strong interpersonal skills, organizational knowledge, strong supervisory skills, technical competence, personal power, status, willingness to be responsible for someone else's growth, ability to share credit, patience, and risk-taking. Strategies for recruiting mentors include reliance on volunteers, using nomination by executives, or using nomination by protégés. In developing the mentor's role, it is important to consider several dimensions, including selecting a title, describing the responsibilities, advertising, making the process for volunteering or nominating easy, screening candidates for readiness, carefully matching the mentoring pairs, providing orientation, building rewards into the mentoring process, and maintaining records of volunteers or nominees.

Chapter 9 provides guidelines for the effective identification, screening, and selection of protégés for a facilitated mentoring program. In terms of identification, three strategies are suggested: self-nomination, boss nomination, and sponsor nomination. When screening and selecting protégés for participation in the program, organizations need to develop unbiased processes. Another important component of the selection process is developmental planning activities; in order for them to be effective, it is recommended that organizations diagnose developmental needs through individualized assessment surveys and prepare individual developmental plans based on these diagnosed needs.

Chapter 10 provides suggestions for including a protégé's immediate supervisors in the mentoring process. These include making the boss an active participant in the protégé's development plans, structuring some planned interactions between the boss and the mentor, alerting the boss to opportunities to watch the mentor work with people, and using the program to make the boss aware of the benefits of human resources development.

A program coordinator is responsible for assisting in the selection, matching, and orientation of program participants and mentors. Chapter 11 gives suggestions for the selection, training, and development of responsibilities for a program coordinator. Chapter 12 outlines guidelines for the negotiation of the mentoring agreement between the mentor and the protégé. More specifically, two elements need to be specified in any mentoring agreement: the mentor role and the goals of the protégé.

Chapter 13 provides basic strategies for evaluating program effectiveness. Important criteria may include costs, effectiveness, cost-benefit analysis, and value to the organization. The authors stress the importance of establishing and measuring some baseline indicators as a first step in the evaluation process. Chapter 14 discusses potential problems and solutions to some specific concerns related to cross-gender and cross-cultural pairing. Based on suggestions provided in previous chapters, Chapter 15 concludes with a general checklist for the effective development, execution, and evaluation of facilitated mentoring relationships.



Newby, Timothy J., and Ashlyn Heide. The value of mentoring.
Performance-Improvement-Quarterly 5:4, 1992, pp. 2-15.

The major phases of an ideal mentoring program are described in this article, along with an overview of program benefits and guidelines for implementing successful programs. The overall goal of mentoring is to develop the knowledge and skills of a less-experienced person through individualized attention from someone with more experience and knowledge in a given area of expertise. An ideal mentoring program consists of five major phases.

First, the *goal-setting* phase of a structured program involves the identification and prioritization of program goals. Second, the *initiation* phase involves the pairing of protégés and mentors, using an outside selection process to provide optimal matches. Third, the *cultivation* phase is a time period in which the partnership between a mentor and a protégé builds and grows, with counseling and instruction provided by the mentor. Fourth, a *separation* phase begins as the protégé assumes increasing independence and the relationship shifts from a teacher-student relationship to a collegial relationship. Fifth, the *redefinition* phase involves redrawing the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and protégé.

The authors also outline the potential benefits of structured mentoring programs to the protégé, to the mentor, and to the organization. Protégé benefits include information, valuable experiences, increased confidence, assistance, individualized attention, and career success. Some mentor benefits include career development; monetary rewards; assistance with projects and responsibilities; improved reputation; increased power; information; and intrinsic rewards such as challenging assignments, increased confidence, and personal fulfillment. Organizational benefits include increased employee

commitment, development of managerial talent, decreased turnover, and assistance with succession planning.

The authors offer several guidelines for implementing formal mentoring programs as follows: (1) Establish clear goals and objectives. (2) Provide an orientation for participants. (3) Evaluate and match mentor personal characteristics, skills, and goals with the characteristics and needs of protégés.

(4) Train mentors. (5) Allow mentor/protégé pairs to work together on a trial basis for a brief period. (6) Monitor, evaluate, and make adjustments in the program. (7) Engender and encourage protégé independence.



Noe, Raymond A. An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology* 41, 1988, pp. 457-479.

The purpose of this study was to examine assigned, or formal, mentoring relationships by investigating the influence of several variables on the self-reported career and psychosocial benefits of the protégé. These variables included the protégés' level of job involvement, locus of control, clarity of career objectives, and perceived importance of relationships with supervisors and peers. In addition, protégés also reported on the gender composition of the mentoring dyad, the amount of time spent with the mentor, and the quality of the interaction with him or her.

Participants in the study included 139 formal mentoring pairs in nine school districts. The sample included twenty-five school superintendents (mentors) and 139 principals and teachers (protégés). The protégés were part of a comprehensive development program designed to promote the career and personal development of educators who aspired to become principals and superintendents. Mentors were assigned to protégés during this program, with each mentor being assigned from one-to-five protégés. Mentors were selected on the basis of level (superintendent or district coordinator), willingness to participate, past experience (excellent performance record), and completion of a mentoring training program.

In general, protégés reported receiving psychosocial benefits but very limited specific career advice from their assigned mentor. It was also found that most of the reported variables had no impact on the reporting of career and psychosocial benefits of mentoring. However, protégés who reported more job involvement, more career planning, and a higher quality of interaction with their mentors also reported a higher level of psychosocial mentoring.

In his conclusion, the author suggests that formal mentoring programs may differ from informal, traditional mentoring programs in the type and variety of career functions—such as sponsorship, coaching, and protection—provided to the protégés. However, mentors did report that they spent only limited periods of time with their protégés. To the extent that a formal mentoring program is structured to encourage interaction between mentors and protégés and to make mentors more accessible, the program outcomes may more closely parallel traditional mentoring outcomes.



Noe, Raymond A. Mentoring relationships for employee development. In *Applying Psychology in Business: The Handbook for Managers and Human Resource Professionals*. J. W. Jones, B. D. Steffy, and D. W. Bray, Eds. Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath and Company, 1991, pp. 475-482.

A recent trend in employee development has been the use of behavior-modeling training programs (based on social learning theory) for interpersonal skills development. Social learning theory emphasizes skill development through observational learning, practice, reinforcement, and goal-setting. The success of this type of training has led organizations to focus on other modeling-based methods such as formal mentoring programs for the purpose of employee development. Based on a review of the literature, this chapter provides an overview of formal mentoring programs in organizations including characteristics, purposes, benefits, and potential problems.

The author states that successful formal mentoring programs are typically characterized by top-management support, careful selection of mentors and protégés, training or extensive orientation, clearly stated responsibilities, and established minimums for amount and frequency of contact between mentor and protégé. Goals of formal mentoring programs include employee socialization, facilitation of transfer of training, provision of opportunities for women and minorities to gain exposure to managers, and assistance in the personal and professional development of protégés. In addition, there are formal mentoring programs that are designed to help managers acclimate to new organizational cultures during corporate mergers and structured programs that are designed to help U.S. managers who work in foreign corporations.

Many potential benefits can be gained by a protégé participating in a mentoring program, and most of the literature focuses on the career and

psychosocial functions provided to the protégé. However, there has been very little research directed at attempting to empirically test the implicit assumptions about the links between participation in a mentoring program and individual outcomes. Furthermore, little research has been directed at delineating the types of benefits that mentors receive from participating in mentoring relationships. Several studies have attempted to explore the influence of individual and organizational characteristics on the success of mentoring relationships. Individual and organizational variables that have been examined include personal characteristics such as gender; attitudes, such as level of job involvement; and organizational climate. However, these studies have focused on informal mentoring relationships and do not generalize easily to formal mentoring relationships.

Potential negative outcomes of mentoring relationships include underdeveloped relationships due to the brevity of the program, negative reactions by participants, overdependence by protégés, resentment of relationship by protégé's manager, and favoritism. Finally, the authors offer several suggestions for the development of a successful mentoring program. These suggestions include the following: program participation should be voluntary; protégés should be allowed some autonomy in choosing a mentor; mentors should be carefully selected and trained; participants should clearly understand the program's purpose and expectations; program length should be clearly specified; minimum contact levels between mentors and protégés should be established; protégés should be encouraged to contact each other; programs should be assessed and evaluated; and participation needs to be formally recognized and rewarded by the organization.



Phillips-Jones, Linda. *Mentors and Protégés*. New York: Arbor House, 1982, 212 pages.

Although the major focus of this book is on informal mentoring, one chapter discusses formal mentoring programs. After listing several companies employing formal mentoring programs (Jewel Companies, AT&T, Hughes Aircraft, Merrill Lynch), the author cites several intended purposes for their mentoring programs including the socialization of new employees, career-advancement help, increased commitment to organization by mentors and protégés, and opportunities for organizational leaders to observe mentors and protégés.

She also cites nine programs that have features that are linked to program success: top-management support, making the mentoring effort part of a larger career-development effort, voluntary participation, short program phases, careful selection of participants, inclusion of a program orientation, preparation for potential challenges, allowing mentors some flexibility, and inclusion of a monitoring system. (See the next annotation for details.)



Phillips-Jones, Linda. Establishing a formal mentoring program. *Training and Development Journal* 27:2, February 1983, pp. 38-42.

The establishment of a successful formal mentoring program requires careful planning. Based on a review of several existing mentoring programs, the author outlines nine important features that make them effective: (1) ensure that top-management supports the mentoring program; (2) make the mentoring program part of a larger career-development or management-training effort; (3) insist that participation in the program be voluntary; (4) keep program phases short (for example, six-month cycles); (5) select mentors and protégés carefully; (6) provide an orientation for mentors and protégés; (7) encourage mentors to do mentoring in a style that is comfortable for them; (8) be prepared for potential challenges and problems; and (9) build in a monitoring and evaluation system whereby continuous feedback is received regarding the program and its effectiveness. The author provides specific company examples when describing each of these features.



Portwood, James D., and Cherlyn S. Granrose. Organizational career management programs: What's available? What's effective? *Human Resource Planning* 9:3, September 1986, pp. 107-119.

Over the past several years, career-assistance programs (including formal mentoring programs) have become increasingly utilized within organizations to assist employees with career development. It is assumed that these career-assistance programs will have a positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, there is also some evidence to the contrary: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are actually negatively affected when employees discover, through the career-assistance process, that their goals do not match organizational goals. There is also a

general assumption that career-assistance programs are all very similar when, in fact, there is a wide range of organizational practices. Finally, there is also a general assumption that employees will participate in any career-assistance program that is available. Contrary evidence suggests employees will only participate in these programs to the extent that some desired outcomes will result. Clearly more research is needed in order to understand the impact of career-assistance programs on employee behaviors and attitudes.

This study examined the impact of several types of career-assistance programs, including mentoring, on individual attitudes and perceptions of career impact. Two hundred sixty-six employed professionals who were taking a graduate course completed a survey on career-development activities within their organization. Participants were primarily managerial and professional employees who had been employed with their present organization for an average of five years.

The findings revealed that 38% responded that mentoring/coaching programs were available, and 23% responded that they had participated in mentoring. Results on perceived impact on career planning and progress showed that there were positive correlations between participation in a mentoring/coaching program and two variables—impact on career progress and impact on mobility in the organization. However, there were no significant correlations between participation in a mentoring/coaching program and perceived impact on career-goal clarity or career-plan specificity.

Results on the perceived impact of career-development programs on knowledge of and match with organizational plans showed that participants reported a significant, positive relationship between the existence of a mentoring/coaching program and two variables—the knowledge that the organization has plans for employee satisfaction and organizational satisfaction. A significant relationship between participation in a mentoring program and a perceived match between individual and organizational goals was not found. Clearly the results suggest that mentoring programs can have a positive impact on individual attitudes and perceptions of career impact.



Reid, Barbara A. Mentorships ensure equal opportunity. *Personnel Journal* 73:11, November 1994, pp. 122-123.

Informal mentoring relationships are not commonly available to women and minorities. For example, a recent study by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs found that several barriers, including a lack of

mentoring, impede women and minorities from obtaining senior-level positions. It is likely that potential mentors, most of whom are white and male, tend to choose protégés who are similar to themselves. In addition, racial groups tend to trust members of their own group more than members of other groups, and a lack of trust within mentoring relationships makes them ineffective.

The author argues that it is the responsibility of organizations to initiate formal mentoring programs in order to ensure that mentorships are available to everyone. The author outlines six factors that are important to consider in the development of an effective mentoring program: (1) Mentors must be willing to commit time and energy to assisting their protégés. (2) Mentors should function as sounding boards by providing honest feedback and constructive advice, and should provide challenging job assignments. (3) Networking should be an important component of the mentoring program. (4) Mutual trust and confidence should be an important part of an assigned relationship. (5) The program must be supported by top management. (6) Reward systems (monetary compensation and career advancement) should be linked to the program.



Rogers, Beth. Mentoring takes a new twist. *HR Magazine* 37:8, August 1992, pp. 48-51.

In this article, two corporate mentoring programs are briefly described and compared. At NCR Corporation, mentoring is used as an early-identification program for high-potential employees. Because NCR hires the majority of its employees from college campuses, mentoring is viewed as an educational tool to select, train, and track talent. Although there is no formal matching of mentors and protégés, managers are asked to select high-potential employees to sponsor. In addition, mentoring is integrated into all of NCR's developmental programs.

NCR provides guidelines to managers regarding mentoring and the benefits of mentoring to the organization, mentors, managers, and participants. It is estimated that 10% of the employees are involved in the mentoring program. However, the organization has also noted one negative consequence of the mentoring system, which they call "the crown prince syndrome" or "halo effect." This refers to the perception that a protégé's advancement is based on a connection with the mentor rather than achieved through merit.

Trying to develop an alternative to one-on-one mentoring, an in-house group of women at NYNEX Corporation has initiated mentoring circles whose primary focus is to help female employees attain greater leadership roles within the organization. These circles are typically comprised of eight-to-twelve participants that represent a mix of upper-level managers acting as mentors and lower-level employees acting as protégés, with at least two levels between the protégés and mentors.

The circles meet on a regular basis to discuss career concerns and work issues. Because the program was developed independently by an in-house network of women and not by the organization or upper management, the focus is on personal benefits as opposed to organizational benefits related to tracking and development of high-potential employees.



Rosenbach, William E. Mentoring: Empowering followers to be leaders. In *Contemporary Issues in Leadership*. W. E. Rosenbach and R. L. Taylor, Eds. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1993, pp. 141-151.

The author provides a general overview of mentoring within organizations that includes discussions of benefits to mentors, benefits to protégés, benefits to organizations, risks and problems, cross-gender and cross-race mentoring, and a comparison of informal and formal mentoring programs. Protégé benefits include career-skills development, cultural socialization, self-confidence, advancement opportunities, stress reduction, improved networking, feedback, support, protection, assistance, and challenging assignments.

Benefits to a mentor include personal fulfillment, assistance with responsibilities, information, advice, improved reputation, power, and personal satisfaction. Benefits to the organization include socialized employees, effective leadership teams, succession planning, continuation of organizational culture, reduced turnover, increased commitment, and improved productivity.

Despite the risks and problems associated with formal mentoring programs, three characteristics common to all successful formal mentoring programs are identified: (1) mentoring is only a part of an overall development program, (2) emphasis is placed on coaching behaviors directed toward job-related activities, and (3) the formal relationships are part of an organizational culture that supports individual and organizational development and provides rewards for those who participate.

Various objectives for initiating a formal mentoring program include mergers, major restructuring efforts that result in a need to harmonize dissimilar cultures, promotion and advancement of minority groups, development of high-potential managers, enrichment of careers of mid-level managers, and the stimulation of creativity and innovation. The author also emphasizes the importance of establishing clear goals for a formal mentoring program, making the selection process as autonomous as possible, gaining cooperation of entire organizations through rewards, and permitting early withdrawal from the program.



Rubow, Rick, and Suzanne A. Jansen. A corporate survival guide for the baby bust. *Management Review* 79:7, July 1990, pp. 50-52.

To meet the challenges of competing for and retaining increasingly scarce entry-level workers, the authors argue that progressive companies have turned to formal mentoring for recruitment and staff development. In addition, cross-company mentoring has helped businesses expand markets globally. The authors argue that mentoring programs can dramatically improve employee retention by helping individuals enjoy stable relationships with people in power. In addition, new employees are attracted to the organization by internal employees who are satisfied with the company.

The authors also state that staff retention is not entirely a function of salary and depends heavily on employee morale. Mentoring programs, by filling individual needs to feel respected, boost morale and increase retention. Although some professionals argue that formal mentoring programs can actually isolate protégés and disrupt broad-based networks, the authors say that good mentoring programs encourage protégés to develop a network of relationships and seek the assistance they need when they need it.

Some suggestions are outlined for developing a formal mentoring program. Requirements for a successful program include top-management support, input from potential participants, program design based on participant input, written guidelines, and careful meshing of the program with corporate culture. Organizations that are prime candidates for mentoring programs include companies that plan to grow, that face personnel shortages at entry or middle-management levels, that have a high turnover rate, that require cooperative teamwork, that need to support creativity, that wish to increase numbers of minority employees, or that need to reduce organizational and personal stress.



Russell, Joyce E. Career development interventions in organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 38:3, 1991, pp. 237-287.

In addition to providing a general overview of various career-development interventions used in organizations, the author provides a brief history and overview of formal mentoring programs. Such programs can be dated back to 1931 when The Jewel Tea Company (now Jewel Companies) implemented a structured program, whereby each MBA who entered the firm was assigned to a senior manager who served as a mentor during the newcomer's early-career period. During the 1980s, awareness and published findings revolving around the importance of mentoring relationships to individual careers began to fuel the establishment of formal mentoring systems. Organizations that have implemented formal mentoring programs include AT&T, IBM, the IRS, Federal Express, Merrill Lynch, Jewel Companies, Apple Computer, and Procter & Gamble.



Saari, Lise M., Terry R. Johnson, Steven D. McLaughlin, and Denise M. Zimmerle. A survey of management training and education practices in U.S. companies. *Personnel Psychology* 41:4, December 1988, pp. 731-743.

In order to learn more about current issues and trends related to management training and education, the authors surveyed 1,000 randomly selected U.S. private organizations with at least 1,000 employees. Survey topics included needs assessment, management training and development approaches, reasons for selecting particular programs, types of managers sent to various program types, evaluation strategies, future trends, and management-training content areas needing greater emphasis.

Responses were obtained from 611 organizations. Findings revealed that 57% of the respondents indicated that they use mentoring as a part of their overall management training and development approach. However, it is unclear as to whether this mentoring entailed only formal mentoring programs or also included informal mentoring. It seems likely that the authors did not differentiate between the two types of mentoring in their survey

questions, and that the respondents were answering these questions with respect to general mentoring as opposed to only formal mentoring initiatives.



Scher, Hagar. New mentor matchup programs. *Working Woman* 21:1, January 1996, p. 17.

The Women's Organization for Mentoring, Education, and Networking (WOMEN) is a New York-based organization that organizes formal mentorships between employees working in different organizations. Companies pay WOMEN to match mid-level female managers with higher-ranking mentors (both men and women) at other companies. The organization believes that cross-company relationships eliminate political tensions that may take place between employees of the same organization.

Another cross-company mentoring program, supported by a federal grant, has been initiated by the International Women's Forum Leadership Foundation. Participants in this year-long program attend conferences and leadership seminars, in addition to spending at least fourteen days at their formal mentors' workplace.



Settle, Mary E. Developing tomorrow's managers. *Training and Development* 42:4, 1988, pp. 60-64.

McDonnell Douglas Corporation has established a formal mentoring component as part of a larger management-development effort aimed at high-potential employees. Employees apply to the program with a formal five-to-ten-year development plan and compete for a limited number of positions. As a part of the program, which focuses on rotational assignments and on-the-job learning, participants are paired with senior managers who act as mentors for the duration of the program.

Mentor responsibilities include participation in biweekly meetings, assistance in the planning of rotational assignments and career goals, acting as a liaison with rotational assignment supervisors, and responsibility as a sign-off person on performance appraisals at the end of each rotational assignment. A senior-level committee selects mentors based on their interest and qualifications, and an orientation program is provided for participating mentors.

Several recommendations are made concerning the development of lower-level employees for future managerial positions. These recommendations or suggestions include the appointment of a committee that is representative of the functional areas and organizational levels of management to develop the program, careful selection of participants, and monitoring of progress. In addition, it is recommended that participants be released from their current duties in order to fully participate in the rotational assignments, that the reporting requirements and role responsibilities be clearly articulated, and that orientation sessions are conducted for all individuals involved in the program.



Sherman, Stratford. How tomorrow's best leaders are learning their stuff.
Fortune, November 27, 1995, pp. 90-106.

Focusing on how some successful companies define and implement leadership-development strategies, this article describes several examples of formal developmental relationships. Contemporary leadership is conceptualized as a process of aligning people toward common goals and empowering them to take needed actions to reach those goals. Leadership, defined as influencing human behavior in an environment of uncertainty, is most effectively developed through job experiences and developmental relationships as opposed to formal training methods.

These successful companies also cite the importance of developing the "soft" side of management, that area of management that deals with human interactions. In helping managers to develop their soft side, some of these successful companies have focused on building relationships within the organizations. For example, McKinsey & Company, a large management-consulting firm, has formalized a mentoring program for high-potential managers. In addition, top executives at McKinsey have formed a network to help each other with client and career issues. McKinsey also has encouraged a teamwork approach to projects that uses teams of mixed rank. Senior people on the teams are expected to help junior people along and are held accountable for mentoring in their appraisals.

Hewlett-Packard assigns executives to "shadow" other executives (internal or external) for a few days. These shadowed individuals are generally recognized for their strong leadership qualities. An example is provided whereby an executive in the organization shadowed Frances Hesselbein, a leader known for turning around the Girl Scouts organization and for oversee-

ing the nonprofit Drucker Foundation. Hewlett-Packard also strives to encourage developmental relationships through formal mentoring within the organization. In addition, the company has instituted a coaching course for managers.

PepsiCo has developed a management-development program for high-potential managers that relies heavily on mentoring. The program is highly selective, the applicant being required to have a business-building idea important enough to be one of the top three priorities of the division (only nine individuals are admitted to each run of the program). The program comprises a five-day off-site seminar led by a senior executive, followed by a three-month follow-up period during which there is mentoring, and a three-day workshop where participants share their learnings and insights.

The program leader personally mentors all of the participants. PepsiCo believes that the most effective leadership-development programs have three key ingredients: a proven leader heading up the program, a small group of participants working closely with the leader over time, and real business projects that put participants at risk as they apply what they learn.



Sullivan, Robert F., and Donald C. Miklas. On-the-job training that works. *Training and Development Journal* 39:5, May 1985, pp. 118-120.

This article presents a case study in which an organization used formal mentoring as a part of their on-the-job training (OJT) program. The seven steps in the OJT program are: (1) obtain top-management support, (2) identify departments relevant to target job, (3) develop performance competency lists and performance measures for each OJT area, (4) determine the training schedule for each trainee, (5) assign a mentor to each trainee, (6) develop an OJT manual, and (7) design an OJT trainee-supervisor reporting system.

The case study involved ten recent college graduates hired by a bank who participated in a nine-month OJT program. Each of the trainees was assigned to an experienced office manager (mentor) who guided him or her through the program. Though mentor participation was voluntary, most of them got involved in the development of the program. Mentors went through a training program to clarify expectations and establish a forum for communication.

Five weeks of the program were devoted exclusively to mentoring. During that time, the mentors assigned activities and projects to their protégés

based upon what they thought was most appropriate. Other mentoring responsibilities included staying in contact with the protégé, making the protégé aware of relevant opportunities and coursework, assisting the protégé with problems and conflicts, meeting with the protégé to discuss progress, and communicating with all stakeholders (protégé, program coordinator, and protégé's manager).

Initial evaluations of the program provided positive feedback with some evidence of impact on performance. In addition, the mentoring component of the program established a model for the rest of the organization, and the training staff was approached by other divisions for help with development of similar programs.



Thomas, David A., and Kathy E. Kram. Promoting career-enhancing relationships in organizations: The role of the human resource professional. In *Career Growth and Human Resource Strategies: The Role of the Human Resource Professional in Employee Development*. Manuel London and Edward M. Mone, Eds. New York: Quorum Books, 1988, pp. 49-66.

This chapter describes the different types of career-enhancing relationships that are available to organizational members, including boss-subordinate relationships, mentoring relationships, and peer relationships. In addition, the authors discuss several organizational strategies for influencing and improving the quality of developmental relationships: education-and-training efforts, organizational-change approaches, and formal mentoring programs.

Although formal mentoring programs may appear to be an effective and direct approach for facilitating developmental relationships, they have some potential drawbacks. For instance, mentors and protégés may feel anxious about their expected roles in the relationship, individuals who are not chosen to participate may feel pessimistic about their own growth and advancement opportunities, and a formal program may tend to emphasize the importance of a single relationship over a constellation of developmental relationships with seniors and peers.

These potential drawbacks can be minimized, however, by several important program characteristics. First, participation should be voluntary so that individuals are less likely to feel threatened by their new responsibilities. Second, training and education should be offered to participants at the outset

of the program in order to clarify roles and to provide skill training to perform these roles. Third, the program should be carefully introduced by the human resources professional so that nonparticipants understand its purpose and scope.



Walter, Kate. The MTA travels far with its future managers program. *Personnel Journal* 74:3, March 1995, pp. 68-72.

A two-year management-development program at the Metropolitan Transit Authority (MTA) is described in this article. The highly selective program involves classroom instruction, action-learning (group projects), and rotational assignments. In addition, the management-development program has a formal mentoring component in which each participant is matched with an experienced manager within the same division of operation as the protégé. Mentors serve as coaches and role models, providing support and feedback to the program participants. The assigned pairs are expected to develop and sign a contract that outlines issues of confidentiality, action plans, and frequency of contact.



Wigand, Rolf T., and Franklin S. Boster. Mentoring, social interaction and commitment: An empirical analysis of a mentoring program. *Communications* 16:1, 1991, pp. 15-31.

The authors state that formal mentoring programs, when implemented as organizational development efforts, can potentially make important contributions to an individual's identification with and commitment to an organization. In addition, mentoring programs may positively affect employee satisfaction and turnover. By fulfilling individual needs for guidance, reassurance, respect, and affiliation, mentoring programs potentially provide an important vehicle for individual development. The authors say that mentoring activities speed up the socialization process, encourage social interaction, provide opportunities for high-quality interpersonal interactions, and enhance identification with and commitment to the organization.

Although there is a large body of theoretical literature and relevant but tangential empirical research (primarily on socialization) that provide some support for these proposed linkages, few empirical studies have directly tested

these hypotheses. The empirical study reported in this article attempts to examine the relationships between an individual's participation in a formal mentoring program and his or her individual outcomes.

Participants in this study were employees of a large U.S. corporation who had participated in a formal mentoring program. The authors provide no information about the program itself; therefore nothing is known regarding the program's content, the program goals, the type of participants, the length of the program, or the length of time that has elapsed since the participants were a part of the program. The sample included twenty-nine protégés and twenty-four mentors in a large corporation who completed short questionnaires. Unfortunately, the questionnaires were anonymous and the mentor-protégé pairs could not be identified.

The questionnaires asked about meetings, contact, adequacy of training, satisfaction with mentoring, and organizational commitment. The protégé questionnaire contained fifteen items that were meant to tap seven variables, including whether or not the protégé had met with the mentor, whether or not the mentor had contacted the protégé to set up a meeting, perceived adequacy of protégé training, whether the mentor had explained the organizational structure to the protégé, perceived organizational commitment to the mentoring program, job satisfaction, and whether the protégé's relationship with the mentor would cause the protégé to stay with the company if recruited by another organization.

The mentor questionnaire contained nine items meant to tap six variables, including whether the protégé had contacted the mentor to set up a meeting, whether or not the mentor had met with the protégé, perceived organizational commitment to the program, mentor satisfaction with the mentoring program, perceived adequacy of mentor training, and whether the mentors met to discuss the protégés' progress.

Despite several methodological problems, such as small sample sizes, the study found generally positive relationships among the variables and supported the general models. For instance, the protégé model predicted that contact with the mentor would increase perceptions of training adequacy. This, in turn, would increase the protégé's perception that the organization was committed to the program which, in turn, would increase job satisfaction and decrease intent to leave the organization. Using causal modeling-analysis techniques, the hypothesized model provided a reasonably good fit with the data, although the sample sizes were too small to make any firm conclusions. A similar mentor model was also supported by the data, although the sample sizes were again too small to make any firm conclusions. In addition, the

findings revealed that, although protégés were generally satisfied with the program, mentors were generally not satisfied.



Wilson, James A., and Nancy S. Elman. Organizational benefits of mentoring. *Academy of Management Executive* 4:4, November 1990, pp. 88-94.

The individual and organizational benefits of mentoring (both informal and formal) are described here, along with several suggestions for the development of formal mentoring programs. The benefits of mentoring include employee development, increased motivation, improved job performance, increased retention rates, strengthening and continuance of corporate culture, and assistance with corporate transitions. Mentoring also serves to provide mentors with valuable inside information and to let them transfer early warning signals regarding workforce attitudes and complaints to upper management when potential problems are detected.

In addition, the authors briefly discuss formal mentoring programs and offer several suggestions, including matching mentors and protégés who are two-to-three levels apart, careful selection of mentors, training and coaching of mentors for women and minorities, and voluntary participation. Two primary functions of upper-level mentors are emphasized: mentors' responsibilities (1) to share their vision and (2) to nurture confidence in the protégé to develop his or her own vision. Finally, the authors offer suggestions for initiating a formal mentoring program that include a "kick-off" by a CEO followed by an informal get-together of potential participants and then several training sessions.



Winkler, Renee. A dynamic duo—sometimes. *Human Resource Executive* 8:3, March 1994, pp. 45-47.

Formal mentoring programs in two organizations are described. USAA, an insurance and diversified financial services institution, uses three different types of mentoring programs. The first, a training program, is offered to all 10,000 employees at the headquarters location in San Antonio, Texas, with the applicants competing for a limited number of spots. Selection decisions for entrance into the three-year training program are made by a committee,

and participants are linked with a senior manager for periodic coaching. The second is a management-development program for newly recruited employees who participate in rotational assignments. These participants are also matched up with senior managers who assist them with their assignments. The third is a minority scholarship program, in which minority college students work for the organization during summer breaks and receive scholarship money. As in the previous two programs, these participants are also matched up with senior managers who assist them and provide advice.

Pacific Bell has a formal mentoring program for minority women that focuses on career planning and rotating job assignments. The two-year program was initiated with the hope that it would encourage the upward mobility of minority women into higher levels of management. Although it has met with much resentment by male and nonminority employees because of their ineligibility, the organization feels that the benefits outweigh the negative feelings of nonparticipants. All of the mentors are at least two levels above the protégés and are volunteers. After agreeing to participate, mentors are carefully selected and trained.



Wright, Robert G., and William B. Werther, Jr. Mentors at work. *Journal of Management Development* 10:3, 1991, pp. 25-32.

The authors provide a general overview of mentoring (both informal and formal) in organizations, citing the benefits of mentoring to the participants and to the organization. They assert that protégés benefit from mentoring relationships in numerous ways, including career advancement, feedback, increased confidence, sponsorship, and support. The organizational benefits of mentoring revolve around more effective utilization of human resources. In addition, the inherent coaching within a mentoring relationship is a powerful training and development tool. Several organizations have implemented formal mentoring programs in order to obtain the benefits.

The authors cite several companies utilizing formal mentoring programs, including AT&T, Federal Express, Honeywell, Johnson & Johnson, and Merrill Lynch. Some potential problems related to formal mentoring programs are also briefly discussed, such as mismatched pairs, high expectations, and resistance.



Zagumny, Matthew J. Mentoring as a tool for change: A social learning perspective. *Organization Development Journal* 11:4, December 1993, pp. 43-48.

Although a large body of literature has focused on mentoring, little research has focused on the theoretical basis of mentoring. However, social learning theory, developed by A. J. Bandura in the 1970s [e.g., Bandura, Albert. *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1977], provides a theoretical foundation for understanding the success of formal mentoring programs. This article examines this theory as a basis on which to develop mentoring programs that are implemented to help facilitate organizational change efforts. It is suggested that the theory offers a foundation for developing successful mentoring programs and systems that lead to planned organizational change.

Social learning theory was based on Bandura's work with children. It hypothesizes that an important source of learning is through vicarious reinforcement and punishment; that is, individuals learn how to behave by observing the behavior and consequences (such as rewards and punishment) of others. In addition to observing, practicing the new behavior is necessary for complete learning to occur. Mentoring, then, is a process by which a protégé learns how to behave by observing a mentor's behavior and the resulting consequences. In effect, mentors act as role models for behavior that is rewarded in organizations.

Mentoring relationships also increase the speed of learning over trial-and-error learning; in particular, learning through observing and listening to experienced employees (such as mentors) effectively teaches rules of behavior and replaces more costly forms of training. The importance of trust in the mentoring relationship is also emphasized; the protégé must trust the mentor to demonstrate effective behavior and the mentor must trust the protégé to follow his or her example.

A review of the literature reveals the following suggestions for implementing successful programs: Make mentoring part of a larger human resources development effort, make participation voluntary, include an orientation, keep program cycles short, build in structured flexibility, build in monitoring, match program goals with mentors' level, do not use immediate supervisors as mentors, give protégés "real" work, involve top management, select mentors based on commitment to change, inspire independence, and avoid nepotism.

From this laundry list, the author cites three key elements for using mentoring programs as change strategies: Select participants who are moti-

vated to internalize desired organizational changes, develop structured activities, and make mentoring part of a larger human resources development effort.

In terms of selection processes, it is important that program coordinators select mentors who are committed to the planned organizational change and protégés who are motivated to internalize the organizational changes. Structured activities that are developed should facilitate the modeling and teaching of new behaviors. In addition, the program coordinator needs to make sure that there is contact between the mentors and protégés in order for the relationship to develop.

However, it is also important to include flexibility with the structured activities and not to make the program too rigid. Finally, the development of mentoring programs needs to be considered within a larger development context. That is, the newly learned skills and behaviors must be supported through continuous practice and by other organizational structures, such as reward systems and culture. The involvement of the program in a larger context demonstrates and reinforces the organization's commitment to the change effort.



Zey, Michael G. Mentor programs: Making the right moves. *Personnel Journal* 64:2, 1985, pp. 53-57.

The benefits of formal mentoring programs are briefly discussed, along with some guidelines and recommendations to be considered when implementing a program. Although an effective mentoring program can fulfill a variety of corporate goals—for example, affirmative-action mandates—the greatest contributions of these programs revolve around employee development. More specifically, benefits to protégés include skill development, increased awareness of the corporate culture, and increased knowledge of the values and expectations of the company.

Before implementing a program, an organization needs to define and clarify the goals of the program. There are also other factors that need to be considered before implementation. For example, program developers need to decide who should participate and how individuals will be selected to participate, develop a good matching process, and determine the length and timing of the program. Finally, program developers need to consider guidelines for the mode and frequency of interaction between mentors and protégés, along with the responsibilities of the mentors.

A typical program has seven stages: program development, notification, selection, orientation, pairing, implementation, and evaluation. Recommendations for the development of a formal mentoring program are: plan extensively; communicate program goals to participants; enlist the cooperation of the entire organization; conduct an autonomous selection process, whereby mentors and protégés are allowed to select each other; ensure commitment by mentors; permit withdrawal from the program; conduct continuous evaluation; and provide long-term testing.



Zey, Michael G. A mentor for all. *Personnel Journal*, January 1988, pp. 46-51.

In this article, the author highlights several benefits of formal mentoring programs and emphasizes their usefulness in light of five social and economic trends: the coming labor shortage, the changing composition of the workforce, the merger explosion, the quest for innovation, and the emergence of the cross-cultural corporation. In terms of the coming labor shortage, there has been an accelerated slowdown in the number of entry-level workers entering the workforce. Because of this, organizations are required to find new ways to attract and retain employees from this increasingly scarce supply. Formal mentoring programs can reduce turnover by helping new employees acclimate to the organizational culture more quickly and make them feel more closely integrated into the organization.

Second, the composition of the workforce is changing with growing numbers of women and minorities. Formal mentoring programs can help these groups move up the corporate hierarchy more quickly and provide needed support. Third, the merger explosion has created tensions and problems in merged companies and has led to high turnover among managers in the purchased company. Formal mentoring programs can help these managers learn the values and culture of the parent organization more quickly and ease the transition of the merger.

Fourth, organizations are increasingly pressured to find ways to foster innovation among employees in order to retain competitiveness. There is a strong relationship between mentoring and innovation. The exchange of ideas between two partners within a mentoring relationship can act as a catalyst for innovation. Fifth, the emergence of the cross-cultural corporation is another significant trend that can be addressed through formal mentoring. Organizations within the United States that are owned by parent organizations in other

countries are typically staffed at the middle and upper-middle levels of management by Americans. However, there are high turnover rates among these managers because of the difficulties in adapting to the style and practices of their employer. Formal mentoring programs provide an avenue for these managers to adapt to the new culture.

(See also: Zey, Michael G. Five major trends that signal the growth of corporate formal mentor programs. In *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Mentoring*. W. A. Gray and M. M. Gray, Eds. Vancouver, British Columbia: International Association on Mentoring, 1986, pp. 153-160.)



Zey, Michael G. *The Mentor Connection: Strategic Alliances in Corporate Life*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers, 1991, 228 pages.

Most of this book focuses on an examination of informal mentoring relationships within organizations, based on interviews with managers and executives. However, two chapters focus on describing formal mentoring programs and providing some guidelines for increasing the effectiveness of such programs. It is estimated that more than one thousand formal mentoring programs exist in such organizations as Johnson & Johnson, Bellcore, NCR Corporation, Allstate, Pacific Telesis, and Merrill Lynch. Since the mid-1980s, organizations of every type, from health-care and industry to education, have independently begun to examine how best to develop formal methods for linking mentors and protégés. Trends that have facilitated the increase of such programs include the coming labor shortage, increased diversity of the workforce, the quest for innovation, the merger explosion, and the emergence of the cross-cultural corporation. The increase in the number of existing programs has also paralleled improvements in the quality of existing programs. These improvements include the acknowledgment and awareness of the important role that corporate culture plays in the effectiveness of any program, the awareness that cross-functional mentoring can have very positive effects, and increased attention to program development and training.

Chapter 1 provides a framework for formal mentoring programs. A mentor is defined as "a person who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counseling, and providing psychological support, protecting, and at times promoting or sponsoring" (p. 7). The four mentoring activities, arranged in descending order of impor-

tance or contribution to managerial development and advancement, include: sponsoring, organizational intervention (mentor interceding on protégé's behalf), psychological counseling, and teaching. Benefits accrue to all participants in a mentoring relationship—the organization, the mentor, and the protégé.

Organizational benefits include managerial succession, managerial development, reduced turnover, increased productivity, advancement of protégés and mentors, and increased power. Mentor benefits include information, loyalty, prestige, and assistance in completing job activities. Finally, protégé benefits include knowledge, personal support, protection, and career advancement.

In Chapter 8 the author provides three case studies of formal mentoring programs (a federal government program, Wall Street Investment Company, and the New Jersey division of the Northeast Insurance Company) and discusses some of the drawbacks of these programs. The federal government has a management-development program with a formal mentoring component. The program provides a three-year internship, made up of a core position with rotational assignments, to newly recruited management trainees. Each participant is allowed to choose a mentor from a group of participating senior managers who oversees the participant's development for the duration of the program. At Wall Street Investment Company, each new employee is assigned to a mentor for six-to-nine months. The program has been criticized because of its lack of structure and direction. Northeast Insurance Company's mentoring program was developed in order to reduce the high turnover rate among young managers. However, this program is also criticized because of multiple problems, including lack of participation choice, inadequate definitions of roles and expectations, and a lack of continuity from the training program to post-training career.

In conclusion, the author argues that mentoring relationships can have positive implications for organizations, mentors, and protégés. Although mentoring relationships are most successful when developed informally within an organization, these relationships are too infrequent and most managers spend their careers without the guidance of a mentor. Formal mentoring programs and initiatives can bridge this gap by providing structured mechanisms for forming developmental relationships between organizational members. However, it is important that such programs be developed with careful planning and forethought.

Based on his research, the author provides eleven guidelines for developing an effective formal mentoring program: (1) establish clear program

goals; (2) communicate the program goals to participants; (3) determine the organization's ability to absorb program graduates; (4) gain organizational cooperation; (5) make the selection process as autonomous as possible; (6) ensure mentor commitment; (7) provide some flexibility for the development of the relationship; (8) permit withdrawal from the program; (9) evaluate the program continually; (10) give the program a long-term test period; and (11) anticipate resentment by nonparticipants.



Section 2: Basic Information on Formal Mentoring

The two subsections here are meant to provide some fundamental information about formal mentoring programs. The first, a history of formal mentoring, informs readers about the background and uses over the years of formal developmental programs in organizations. The second provides current definitions and conceptual frameworks of such programs. All of the material presented here is based on information taken from the annotations, with the references provided.

History

The history of the use of formal mentoring relationships for the purposes of development dates to 1931 when The Jewel Tea Company implemented a formal program; each MBA who entered the firm was assigned to a senior manager who served as a mentor during the newcomer's early-career period (Russell, 1991). This was considered unique, however, because most early management-development activities were limited to training programs and job-rotational experiences.

Formal mentoring programs didn't grow significantly until the 1980s, when their rapid expansion was fueled by the attention given to the effectiveness of informal mentoring relationships in the literature and to the growing body of work that supported the importance of developmental relationships in career development. Various economic and societal trends during this period also facilitated this growth: competitive challenges, labor shortages, large numbers of organizational mergers, the focus on innovation and technology, cross-cultural issues, affirmative-action goals, the awareness of the needs of an increasingly diverse workforce, and the need for better succession-planning and management development (Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991; Zey, 1988).

These trends led to both an increased organizational awareness of the importance of management development and an increased awareness of obstacles hindering the development of informal developmental relationships. Early programs, for the most part, were limited to selected groups of individuals, including minorities, women, and recent college graduates (Kram & Bragar, 1991; Zey, 1991).

In parallel to the rapid rise in the number of formal programs, there was also an increase in their variety and breadth and in the diversity of their participants. Many organizations have been using formal mentoring programs to advance organizational goals and to meet the developmental needs of

employees in the areas of recruitment, retention, staff and executive development, affirmative action, career advancement, general development, reduced turnover, improved job performance, accelerated management development, socialization, enrichment of mid-life careers, organizational-change efforts, and succession planning (Clark, 1992; Collin, 1988; Gaskill, 1993; Wigand & Boster, 1991).

There has also been a gradual change in the structure and content of formal mentoring programs. Current programs tend to be more tightly focused and shorter in duration than in the past. In addition, organizations are moving away from programs that focus only on minorities and women and toward those that are available to a wider group of employees. There has been an increased emphasis on group mentoring, in which participants are encouraged to form relationships with peers as well as with senior managers (Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Kaye & Jacobson, 1995; Rogers, 1992). The focus of the mentoring relationships has also changed with more pairing for specific skills as opposed to a relationship focused on more broad-based career-development issues (Gunn, 1995).

Definitions

The most common conceptualizations of formal mentoring relationships between junior and senior managers are based on traditional definitions of informal mentoring. An informal mentoring relationship is typically defined as an intense relationship, lasting eight-to-ten years, in which a senior person oversees the career and psychosocial development of a junior person. Specific mentoring roles may include sponsoring, teaching, coaching, protecting, counseling, and role-modeling (Gray & Gray, 1990; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Zey, 1991). However, there is a wide continuum of ways of viewing informal mentoring, ranging from definitions that stress individuality and long-term commitment to definitions that revolve around short-term, focused coaching activities (Carden, 1990; Rosenbach, 1993). Furthermore, Gray and Gray (1990) argue that it is inappropriate to base definitions of formal mentoring relationships on definitions of informal mentoring relationships because planned, or formal, mentoring programs are distinctly different from informal mentoring relationships.

In the literature annotated here, various attempts to define formal mentoring relationships are found. For example, Zey (1991) defined a formal mentor as "a person who oversees the career and development of another person, usually a junior, through teaching, counseling, and providing psychological support, protecting, and at times promoting or sponsoring" (p. 7).

Murray and Owen (1991) defined formal mentoring in terms of structures and processes designed to create effective mentoring relationships; they emphasize that the primary purpose of these structured relationships is the development of the skills and leadership abilities of less experienced organizational members.

There have also been several attempts to provide theoretical frameworks for understanding formal mentoring programs and distinguishing them from other types of programs or relationships (Gray, 1988; Hunt, 1986; Kram & Bragar, 1991; McCauley & Young, 1993; Zagumny, 1993). For example, Zagumny (1993) examined social learning theory as a theoretical basis from which to develop mentoring programs that are implemented to help facilitate organizational change efforts. Hunt (1986) focused on the clarification of differences between formal and informal mentoring processes based on two dimensions: goal focus and social intensity. Although informal mentoring relationships are primarily individually focused and high in social intensity, formal relationships focus on organizational goals and display moderate social intensity. Other individuals have argued that formal mentoring relationships are more similar to coaching relationships than to traditional informal mentoring relationships.

A few articles have focused on understanding formal mentoring within the broader framework of developmental relationships (Kram & Bragar, 1991; McCauley & Young, 1993). McCauley and Young (1993) have attempted to understand the developmental nature of formal relationships as an important component to defining these types of relationships. A relationship is categorized as developmental when the experience motivates the individual to want to learn and grow, exposes him or her to learning opportunities, and provides support for the learning and growth. This perspective provides an alternative to ongoing debates over the differences among different types of relationships (for example, between coaching and mentoring) and identifies the important, underlying dimensions that define developmental relationships.

In summary, it appears that most definitions of formal developmental relationships are based on traditional definitions of informal mentoring. However, it is also apparent that there are clear differences between formal and informal mentoring processes, and that it is inappropriate to base definitions of formal mentoring relationships on those for informal mentoring. This ambiguity has led to many variations in the ways in which formal developmental relationships are defined and used within organizations and has also led to some resistance to formal mentoring programs by organizations (see Catalyst, 1993).

In order to understand the intentions and potential value of formal developmental relationships, it is important to distinguish these types of relationships from informal relationships. It is likely that formal developmental relationships between junior and senior managers are not intended to create the same type of relationship experienced within informal mentoring relationships. However, it is likely that formal developmental relationships may provide important developmental functions to junior managers.

An alternative approach to conceptualizing formal developmental relationships in terms of activities, roles, or continuums of helping relationships is to focus on the underlying dimensions that define developmental relationships in general. For example, a developmental relationship may be defined as an experience that affects motivation, opportunity, and support for learning (McCauley & Young, 1993).

Section 3: Objectives, Content, and Outcomes of Existing Programs

Zey (1991) estimates that more than a thousand formal mentoring programs currently exist. Some of the organizations that employ them include the following: Ortho Pharmaceutical, Eastman Kodak, Clairol, Pacific Bell, AT&T, Minnesota Mutual, Hewlett-Packard, Dow Jones, S.C. Johnson, Merrill Lynch, Douglas Aircraft, McDonnell Douglas, Hoechst Celanese, Bell Labs, Federal Express, General Motors, Hughes Aircraft, JC Penney, Jewel Companies, NCR Corporation, IBM, Apple Computer, Procter & Gamble, Corning, Honeywell, Johnson & Johnson, and Allstate. Although these organizations are only a sampling of those using formal developmental relationships, their experiences can provide some insight into their breadth and value.

Much of the literature contained within the annotations focuses on descriptive accounts of programs and initiatives that provide useful information for organizations considering the implementation of formal initiatives or modifications to existing programs. This section presents the programs described in the annotations, according to their objectives, content, and outcomes (in terms of benefits and drawbacks).

Objectives

A wide variety of program objectives are mentioned in the annotations (for example, Clark, 1992; Collin, 1988; Gaskill, 1993; Gibb & Megginson, 1993; Jorgenson, 1992; Murray & Owen, 1991; Wigand & Boster, 1991; Zey, 1988). Although the breadth and variety of program objectives appears to be overwhelming, most of them can be grouped into larger categories. At the most general level, program goals appear to fall within one of two categories: advancing organizational goals or meeting the developmental needs of organizational members (see Table 1).

Organizational goals. The use of formal mentoring relationships between junior and senior managers meets at least five generalized objectives: recruitment, retention, succession planning, affirmative action, and organizational change efforts. First, mentoring and coaching programs are used as recruitment tools in order to attract and recruit qualified employees; the general societal trend toward an accelerated slowdown in the number of entry-level workers entering the workforce has required organizations to find new ways to attract employees from this increasingly scarce supply (Zey, 1988).

Table 1. Overview of Program Strategies

<i>General Purpose of Formal Mentoring Relationship</i>	<i>Examples of Program Objectives</i>	<i>Typical Program Target</i>
Advancing organizational goals	To recruit qualified managers	New managers
	To decrease turnover	Lower-level managers
	To fill senior-level positions with qualified managers	High-potential managers
	To increase diversity within senior levels of organization	Female managers Minority managers
	To facilitate organizational change efforts	All managers
Meeting developmental needs of organizational members	To help ease individuals' transition into new organization	New managers
	To facilitate developmental relationships for individuals who lack access to informal mentoring relationships	Female managers Minority managers
	To provide support and challenge to individuals on the "fast track"	High-potential managers

Second, formal mentoring programs are also used to decrease turnover and increase organizational commitment by providing assistance to newcomers and conveying the message that employees are valued. In fact, Gaskill (1993), in her study of formal mentoring programs, found that the primary reason for program implementation was high levels of turnover in lower management levels. Formal relationships can reduce turnover by helping new employees acclimate to the organizational culture more quickly and making them feel more closely integrated into the organization (Zey, 1988). Formal mentoring programs are also used to reduce turnover among American managers in foreign-owned organizations; the increased numbers of American managers in foreign-owned organizations have led to culture clashes and high turnover rates within these organizations (Zey, 1988).

Third, mentoring and coaching programs have been used to augment succession-planning strategies by providing viable, concrete methods for developing and moving people into higher-level jobs. Formal developmental relationships also shorten the typical development cycle of future organizational leaders; organizations frequently find themselves with succession-planning needs that exceed projected numbers of managers that are developmentally ready for senior-level positions (Murray & Owen, 1991). In this context, formal relationships between junior and senior managers also provide visibility and exposure for junior managers by allowing senior managers the opportunities to observe and evaluate the management potential of these lower-level employees (Zey, 1988).

Fourth, formal developmental relationships between junior and senior managers have been used to accelerate the movement of women and minorities into senior-level positions in organizations. Affirmative-action timetables that were developed ten-to-twenty years ago are not being met by general training and development programs; this has led organizations to seek other strategies for meeting these timetables. Affirmative-action initiatives and organizational goals to increase diversity within middle- and senior-management levels have used formal relationships to accelerate the movement of minorities and women into senior-management positions and meet organizational timetables. There is currently a surge of interest in mentoring programs for women and minorities (Murray & Owen, 1991).

Fifth, mentoring and coaching programs have been used to facilitate organizational change efforts, such as easing cultural transitions, fostering innovation and creativity within an organization, and providing support after mergers. For example, there is a strong relationship between mentoring and innovation; the exchange of ideas between two partners in a mentoring relationship can act as a catalyst for innovation (Zey, 1988). Mentoring programs can ease cultural transitions and create a culture that fosters creativity by providing a safe environment for participants to develop new ideas and obtain feedback. With mergers, formal mentoring programs can help managers learn the values and culture of the parent organization more quickly and ease the transition of the merger (Zey, 1988).

Developmental goals. Mentoring and coaching programs can provide an important vehicle for individual development. Objectives within this category vary but usually fall within one of three domains: orientation for new employees, development of women and minorities, and development of high-potential employees.

Many organizations have initiated programs to assist and assimilate individuals who are new to the organization or who are new to a management position (Collin, 1988; Gray & Gray, 1990; Rosenbach, 1993). These programs typically match newcomers with experienced employees in the hopes that the formal relationships will provide newcomers with needed support, information, and acclimation to their new role within the organization.

Second, the awareness of the needs of an increasingly diverse workforce has stimulated the growth in formal developmental relationships (Clutterbuck, 1991; Collin, 1988; Ettorre, 1992; Lean, 1983; Murray & Owen, 1991). As opposed to organizational goals, which revolve around affirmative-action timetables, goals in this category focus on the developmental needs of a diverse workforce. It is projected that 82% of new hires in the year 2000 will be women, minorities, and immigrants (Murray & Owen, 1991). The sheer diversity of cultural issues that has become increasingly evident within organizations has led to individual development needs that are as diverse as the cultural makeup of the organization.

In addition, junior managers within certain subgroups (for example, women and minorities) frequently find a lack of role models and informal mentors at senior levels. Organizations have begun to look at strategies to meet the management development and learning needs of the members of these groups, including formal relationships between junior and senior managers; these have become an important vehicle for expanding and advancing the careers of members of these groups.

Finally, organizations have used formal relationships between junior and senior managers to accelerate the development of individuals targeted by senior management as having strong management potential (Clark, 1992; Collin, 1988; Settle, 1988; Sherman, 1995). The fairly rapid pace of development and career advancement typical of these high-potential junior managers produces unique developmental needs that are not addressed in typical management-development training programs. Formal relationships between high-potential junior employees and senior managers, such as accelerated career advancement, provide a strategy for meeting the unique developmental challenges of these future organizational leaders.

In summary, most of the program objectives that have been mentioned here appear to fall within one of two broad categories: advancing organizational goals or meeting the individual developmental needs of certain subgroups within the organization. In terms of organizational goals, formal developmental relationships are used to meet at least five generalized objectives: recruitment, retention, succession planning, affirmative action, and

organizational change efforts. To meet the needs of certain subgroups, formal relationships between junior employees and senior managers have been used to assist organizational newcomers, minorities, and high-potential managers.

There is clearly overlap between these two broad categories; advancing organizational goals and meeting the developmental needs of organizational members are not mutually exclusive. However, the focus and content of formal relationships appear to vary based on the type of general goal. For example, formalized initiatives that pertain to organizational goals tend to be more focused and of shorter duration than those that pertain to individual developmental needs.

Content

A fairly large number of works focus on describing the content of formal mentoring and coaching programs within organizations. Most of this literature consists of case studies or descriptive accounts of existing programs within organizations (Casner-Lotto, 1988; Cobb & Gibbs, 1990; Ettore, 1992; Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Geiger-Dumond & Boyle, 1995; Grant, 1993; Kaye & Jacobson, 1995; Kizilos, 1990; Marsh, 1992; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Rogers, 1992; Settle, 1988). It is clear that there are variations across different initiatives. For example, existing programs vary along several dimensions that include goals, targeted participants, selection and matching processes, orientation processes, level of top-management support, degree of structure, frequency of contact, reward systems for participants, resources and time allocation, fit with larger strategic directions, duration, program visibility within the organization, benefits and drawbacks, participant roles and responsibilities, and evaluation strategies.

Although the mentoring/coaching process varies in different organizations and across different relationships, it typically involves a relationship in which an experienced manager provides help, advice, and sponsorship to a junior manager. Most existing programs rely on one-to-one pairings between an individual and a senior manager who is at least two position levels above the individual. Formal relationships between junior and senior managers are typically deeper and more intense than other structured relationships such as action-learning teams, peer coaching, and structured networks. In addition, junior and senior managers derive different benefits and have distinctly different roles than participants in learning teams or structured networks. Mentoring roles may involve a breadth of activities including coaching, career-strategy advising, individual development-plan counseling, sponsoring, mediating, monitoring, providing feedback, and role-modeling.

A few studies have surveyed participants or program directors in organizational mentoring programs in order to examine program structures and processes (Gaskill, 1993; Gibb & Megginson, 1993; Noe, 1988; Wigand & Boster, 1991). Gaskill (1993) surveyed and interviewed program directors within retail companies in an attempt to understand more about how current mentoring programs are developed and structured. Despite a small sample size (nine organizations with programs in place), the author did gather some interesting information regarding program content. For example, mentoring programs within these nine retailing organizations had been in existence for one to eight years with an average of 4.6 years. Program cycle length ranged from ten weeks to four years with an average of one year. Based on the data and insights provided by the respondents, the author also developed a conceptual framework consisting of program development, program implementation (contact between protégé and mentor), and program evaluation (including both evaluation program modifications).

Despite the differences that exist in formal relationships between junior and senior managers, several models outlining the mentoring processes in structured programs have been proposed. Newby and Heide (1992) have identified five major phases in a formal mentoring program. First is the goal-setting phase of a structured program, which involves the identification and prioritization of program goals. Second is the initiation phase in which protégés and mentors are paired with an outside selection process to provide optimal matches. Third is the cultivation phase, during which the partnership between a mentor and a protégé builds and grows, with counseling and instruction provided by the mentor. Fourth, a separation phase begins as the protégé assumes increasing independence and the relationship shifts from a teacher-student relationship to a colleague relationship. Fifth, in the redefinition phase, there is a redrawing of the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and protégé.

Murray and Owen (1991) have developed a generic model for a facilitated (or formal) mentoring program. The model identifies thirteen steps: identify protégés, complete developmental diagnosis, recruit mentor candidates, screen mentor candidates, select mentors, orient mentors, orient protégés, negotiate agreement or structure of relationship (such as frequency of meetings, expectations, development plan), execute development plan, engage in periodic meetings between mentors and protégés, report to the program coordinator, and conclude relationship.

Gray (1988) has also developed a model for planned, or formal, mentoring programs that includes four components. The first is the identifica-

tion and matching of mentors with protégés. The second consists of training for mentors, protégés, and support staff. In the third, the monitoring process is checked and retraining is completed if needed. The fourth component involves the evaluation of results and improvement of the program based on the evaluation.

In addition, Gray (1988) provides a model for understanding the nature of the formal mentoring relationships and offers suggestions for its development. The model is based on five levels, through which protégés progress from a state of reliance on a formal mentor to a state of relative autonomy. For example, at the first two stages mentors are encouraged to transmit the realities of the organization, such as culture and values, and help protégés become socialized. As the relationship progresses to later stages, protégés are encouraged to develop their own style as they work on projects or seek assistance from their mentors.

In summary, there is a fair amount of literature (such as case studies and descriptive articles) that has focused on describing the content of formal mentoring and coaching programs within organizations. Despite the variations across different initiatives, several researchers have developed general models that outline the mentoring process within structured programs. Most of these models have focused on identifying the phases or steps in the development and initiation of formal relationships between junior and senior managers (Gray, 1988; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992). Gray (1988) has also developed a model for understanding the nature of the relationships based on the level of protégé independence.

Outcomes: Benefits and Drawbacks

Most of the available literature on formal mentoring relationships between junior and senior managers has tended to be one-sided, focusing only on their positive aspects. A large portion of the literature contains case studies of successful programs; these articles focus on describing the programs and outlining their benefits. However, several readings have attempted to examine both the benefits and drawbacks of formal mentoring programs (Kizilos, 1990; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Lean, 1983; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Wilson & Elman, 1990; Wright & Werther, 1991; Zey, 1991).

In contrast to the case-study literature, these researchers have attempted to provide a more objective assessment of both the potential positive and negative aspects of formal mentoring programs. Most have examined the

positive and negative aspects of programs from three perspectives: that of the organization, the mentor, and the protégé (see Table 2).

From the organizational perspective, several benefits are mentioned: increased productivity and motivation (Murray & Owen, 1991; Rosenbach, 1993; Wilson & Elman, 1990; Zey, 1991); cost effectiveness of the program (Murray & Owen, 1991); improved recruitment (Murray & Owen, 1991); increased organizational communication (Murray & Owen, 1991); improved succession planning (Murray & Owen, 1991; Rosenbach, 1993; Zey, 1991); management development (Wilson & Elman, 1990; Wright & Werther, 1991; Zey, 1991); reduced turnover (Rosenbach, 1993; Wilson & Elman, 1990; Zey, 1991); increased organizational commitment (Rosenbach, 1993); and strengthening and continuance of corporate culture (Rosenbach, 1993; Wilson & Elman, 1990).

Table 2. Benefits and Drawbacks of Formal Mentoring Relationships

	<i>Major Benefits</i>	<i>Potential Drawbacks</i>
For organization:	1. Development of managers in the organization 2. Reduced turnover 3. Increased organizational commitment 4. Low costs or cost effectiveness associated with formal mentoring programs 5. Improved organizational communication	1. Lack of organizational support 2. Creation of a climate of favoritism 3. Difficulties in coordinating programs with other organizational initiatives 4. Costs and resources associated with overseeing and administering program
For protégé:	1. Career advancement 2. Personal support 3. Learning and development 4. Increased confidence 5. Assistance and feedback	1. Neglect of core job 2. Negative experiences 3. Unrealistic expectations 4. Overdependence on relationship 5. Role conflict between boss and mentor
For mentor:	1. Personal fulfillment 2. Assistance on projects 3. Financial rewards 4. Increased self-confidence 5. Revitalized interest in work	1. Lack of time 2. Lack of perceived benefits 3. Lack of skills needed for mentoring role 4. Pressure to take on mentoring role 5. Resentment of protégés

Drawbacks for the organization may include lack of success due to lack of organizational support (Murray & Owen, 1991); creation of a climate of favoritism (Noe, 1991); complicated and expensive administration with cross-functional pairing (Murray & Owen, 1991); resentment by nonparticipants (Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991); and difficulties in coordinating programs with other organizational initiatives (Murray & Owen, 1991).

From the protégé's perspective, potential benefits are: career advancement (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Noe, 1991; Rosenbach, 1993; Wright & Werther, 1991; Zey, 1991); assistance and feedback (Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Wright & Werther, 1991); personal support (Noe, 1991; Rosenbach, 1993; Wright & Werther, 1991; Zey, 1991); protection (Rosenbach, 1993; Zey, 1991); information (Newby & Heide, 1992; Zey, 1991); increased confidence (Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Wright & Werther, 1991); individualized attention (Newby & Heide, 1992); cultural socialization and increased awareness of the organization (Murray & Owen, 1991; Rosenbach, 1993); stress reduction (Rosenbach, 1993); improved networking (Rosenbach, 1993); and valuable experiences and challenging assignments (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993). Potential drawbacks include neglect of the core job (Murray & Owen, 1991); role conflict between the boss and the mentor (Murray & Owen, 1991; Noe, 1991); unrealistic expectations about promotion (Murray & Owen, 1991; Wright & Werther, 1991); credit for accomplishments taken by mentor (Murray & Owen, 1991); betrayal by mentor (Zey, 1991); overdependence on relationship (Kram & Bragar, 1991; Noe, 1991; Zey, 1991); failure to establish other alliances (Zey, 1991); negative experiences (Kizilos, 1990; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Noe, 1991); lack of effective mentors (Kizilos, 1990; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991); and feelings of isolation (Kizilos, 1990).

From the mentor's perspective, potential benefits are: increased self-confidence (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992); personal fulfillment (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993); revitalized interest in work (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992); financial rewards (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992); assistance on projects (Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Zey, 1991); information (Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Wilson & Elman, 1990); increased prestige and reputation (Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993; Zey, 1991); and increased power (Newby & Heide, 1992; Rosenbach, 1993). Potential drawbacks for the mentor include lack of time, lack of perceived benefits, pressure to take on the mentoring role,

resentment of protégés, and lack of necessary skills for the mentoring role (Kizilos, 1990; Murray & Owen, 1991).

There have also been a few empirical studies that have attempted to examine the impact of participation in a formal mentoring program on various outcome variables (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Fagan, 1988; Noe, 1988; Portwood & Granrose, 1986; Wigand & Boster, 1991). In a field study, Chao and her colleagues (1992) compared three groups: informally mentored individuals, formally mentored individuals, and nonmentored individuals. They found that informally mentored individuals reported higher salaries and more career-related support from their mentors than the other two groups. Noe (1988) found that individuals who had participated in formal mentoring programs reported receiving psychosocial functions like counseling, friendship, and acceptance but very limited career functions like sponsorship, coaching, and protection from their formal mentor. In his conclusion, Noe suggests that formal mentoring programs may differ from informal, traditional mentoring in the amount of career functions provided to the protégés. However, mentors did report that they spent only limited periods of time with their protégés. To the extent that a formal mentoring program is structured to encourage interaction between mentors and protégés and to make mentors more accessible, the program outcomes may more closely parallel traditional mentoring outcomes.

Portwood and Granrose (1986) examined the impact of several types of career-assistance programs including mentoring on individual attitudes and perceptions of career impact. Participants were primarily managers and professional employees who had been employed with their present organization for an average of five years. The results showed that 38% responded that mentoring/coaching programs were available; 23% said that they had participated in mentoring. In terms of perceived impact on career planning and progress, there were positive correlations between participation in a mentoring/coaching program and two variables: impact on career progress and impact on mobility in the organization. However, there were no significant correlations between participation in a mentoring/coaching program and perceived impact on career-goal clarity or career-plan specificity.

In summary, several works have attempted to examine the potential benefits and drawbacks of formal relationships between junior and senior managers. There appear to be both potential benefits and drawbacks for organizations, for mentors, and for protégés. However, very little empirical research has attempted to validate or examine the positive and negative outcomes of formal developmental programs. Only a few studies have exam-

ined the impact of formal relationships, and these studies have all chosen to focus on only a few outcome variables affecting impact for the participating protégés, such as salary, career benefits, psychosocial benefits, and attitudes. No published empirical studies have examined the impact of formal relationships on mentors or organizations.

Section 4: Building Effective Programs

There is a great deal of information contained in the annotations about the characteristics of effective formal mentoring relationships. However, it is difficult to make sense of or simplify the overwhelming amount of practical advice they have to offer about developing mentoring programs. This section attempts to clarify this advice by providing a framework for understanding it. Although well over one hundred different characteristics or components of successful mentoring programs are cited, they seem to cluster around five themes: organizational support for the program; clarity of purpose, expectations, and roles; participant choice and involvement; careful selection and matching procedures; and continuous monitoring and evaluation.

Table 3 lists each of these five themes along with specific examples of characteristics defining successful formal mentoring programs, all of which were found in these annotations. In terms of developing and implementing an effective program, it is not necessary to make sure each and every example or characteristic is a part of the program. Rather, the intention of the framework is to provide the reader with generalized dimensions that influence program effectiveness and to suggest that there are many different ways to build a successful program if one is aware of the five general dimensions.

Acquire Organizational Support

Organizational support systems are an important determinant of a program's effectiveness. Organizational support is defined as encouragement and support of a program by the organization as a whole. More specifically, program-development efforts should be integrated with strategic business needs, organizational systems (for example, performance-appraisal process, reward systems, and communication systems), and other management-development efforts. In addition, there should be visible support from top management in the organization, along with a supportive organizational culture. Finally, adequate resources need to be made available in order for the program to be successful.

The importance of integrating program-development efforts with strategic business needs, organizational systems, and other management-development efforts is frequently cited in the literature (Antal, 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Cobb & Gibbs, 1990; Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Gray, 1988; Jacoby, 1989; Jorgenson, 1992; Keele, Buckner, & Bushnell, 1987; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982; 1983; Rosenbach, 1993; Rubow & Jansen, 1990; Zagumny, 1991). Kram and

Table 3. Characteristics of Successful Formal Mentoring Programs***Acquire Organizational Support***

Program is part of larger management-development effort
 Top-management support and involvement is evident
 Reward systems for mentors are in place
 Adequate resources are provided
 Program is integrated with total development efforts
 Organizational culture is supportive
 Developmental efforts are aligned with strategic business needs
 Organizational structures are created or modified to foster mentoring
 Mentoring is included in performance-appraisal process
 Communications processes for distributing program information within organization are anticipated and planned

Clarify Purpose, Expectations, and Roles

Goals and intended outcomes have been articulated
 Program goals and objectives define and drive type of program implemented
 Clearly stated time frames and responsibilities are established
 Program is goal-oriented
 Program has clearly visible expectations
 Orientation sessions are conducted for both mentors and protégés in order to clarify roles and responsibilities
 Mentors and protégés have clear, realistic expectations of program and program objectives (for example, program completion does not guarantee a promotion)
 Mentors participate in training sessions in order to clarify roles and improve mentoring skills
 Program objectives are defined and utilized to design program structure
 Potential problems, such as unmet expectations, and their solutions regarding roles and responsibilities are anticipated

Emphasize Choice and Involvement

Participation is voluntary (for both mentors and protégés)
 Participants (both mentors and protégés) are allowed to withdraw from program at any time with no adverse reactions or negative consequences
 Structured flexibility is built into program (participants are allowed some freedom in defining their relationship and program activities)
 Direct managers of participants are included in process
 Protégés are involved in the selection of mentors
 Mentors are involved in the selection of protégés
 Program design is based on participant input
 Participant input is encouraged in program design, implementation, and evaluation
 Existing program is modified according to participant input and needs

Provide Careful Selection and Matching Procedures

Protégés are selected carefully based on program objectives

Mentors are selected carefully based on important criteria (for example, motivation, interest, competence, position, time, skills in developing others)

Careful matching procedures are in place

Skipped-level and/or cross-functional pairing of mentors and protégés are utilized

Mentors are paired with only one protégé

Include Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation

Follow-up and evaluation processes are completed

Continuous monitoring of program activities and processes is utilized

Program evaluation utilizes multiple criteria (both process and outcome criteria)

Programs are evaluated against objectives and goals

Short-term and long-term criteria are included in program evaluation

Continuous evaluation and long-term testing is conducted

Modifications to programs are made based on continuous monitoring and evaluation

Results of formal evaluations are utilized to make changes to program structure

Bragar (1991) cite the importance of linking a planned program to the business strategy of the organization; programs are more easily accepted and supported when they are consistent with current business strategies and other personnel practices. For example, programs designed for women and minorities are more likely to be successful in organizations where increased diversity is an explicit objective.

Several researchers have also emphasized the importance of developing a program that is part of a larger development strategy and is effectively linked to career-planning efforts (Antal, 1993; Gray, 1988; Jorgenson, 1992; Keele, Buckner, & Bushnell, 1987; Murray & Owen, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982; 1983; Rosenbach, 1993; Zagumny, 1993). When formal programs are not part of larger development strategies and are viewed as separate, distinct programs, they are less likely to benefit from the added support and reinforcement of a larger management-development strategy. For example, formal relationships are likely to be more effective when the developmental activities are reinforced and consistent with other development strategies within the organization. To the extent that the skills developed within one program are not reinforced or consistent with other programs or organizational strategies, growth is likely to be limited (Zagumny, 1993). However, when formal relationships are seen as one module in a comprehensive management-development process, the module can be effectively integrated with other

development activities such as training programs, developmental assignments, and career-planning activities (Murray & Owen, 1991).

In terms of organizational systems, several researchers cite the importance of structural supports and making structural changes that will support the initiative (for example, changes in reward systems, work design, and performance-appraisal systems; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Cobb & Gibbs, 1990; Jacoby, 1989). Jacoby (1989) provides specific advice on developing a reward system that incorporates a mentoring component. Managers' mentoring activities should be traced and evaluated by employees and protégés, and these evaluations should be incorporated into the performance-appraisal system. Rewards may include increases to base pay, bonus pay, perks, privileges, status, responsibilities, and promotions.

The support of top management is probably the most frequently mentioned success characteristic within the literature. Several researchers have emphasized the importance of visible support from top management to the success of any formal pairing up of junior and senior managers (Antal, 1993; Bernstein & Kaye, 1986; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Carden, 1990; Cobb & Gibbs, 1990; Cunningham, 1993; Gaskill, 1993; Gunn, 1995; Heery, 1994; Jorgenson, 1992; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Noe, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Rosenbach, 1993; Rubow & Jansen, 1990; Zey, 1991). The effectiveness of any major initiative to develop formal developmental programs depends on top-management support; it is especially crucial with mentoring initiatives because these initiatives frequently involve senior managers acting as mentors. In order to gain the participation of senior managers, then, it is critical to gain the visible support of the top-management team (Burke & McKeen, 1989).

Rosenbach (1993) stresses the importance of an organizational culture, initiated by top management, that supports and encourages individual and organizational development. Heery (1994) states that energetic commitment from the top is the main success ingredient; a program must gain credibility through senior management in order to prevent sabotage by mid-level individuals.

Another important aspect of organizational support for a formal mentoring program is the availability of support in terms of resources such as money, personnel, and space (Gaskill, 1993; Jorgenson, 1992). The program must be viewed as a priority by all levels within the organization, with appropriate resources allocated to it (Gaskill, 1993).

Clarify Purpose, Expectations, and Roles

The effectiveness of a program initiative depends on the extent to which the goals of the program are clearly defined and communicated to relevant individuals, such as program participants, potential mentors, top management, nonparticipants, program coordinators. The program goals and objectives should define and drive the type of program that is implemented. In addition, program participants (both mentors and protégés) should have clear, realistic expectations of the program and its intended objectives. Finally, the expected roles and responsibilities of participants, mentors, and other individuals involved in an initiative should be clarified and communicated in orientation sessions or other similar formats.

Several researchers and practitioners have argued that the establishment of a clear set of program goals and objectives has a strong influence on the program's success (Berstein & Kaye, 1986; Brown, 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Cobb & Gibbs, 1990; Collin, 1988; Gray, 1988; Heery, 1994; Jorgenson, 1992; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Zey, 1985:1991). Newby and Heide (1992) delineate the instructional and motivational benefits of program goals. In terms of instruction, goals help to identify desired levels of performance, needed resources, and reference points for later comparison with behavior changes. From a motivational perspective, the establishment of goals helps motivate participants by identifying and highlighting the expected outcomes from participation in the program. They further argue that, in addition to a focus on desired outcomes for protégés, goals for participating mentors should also be defined and articulated.

Program participants (both protégés and mentors) should have clear, realistic expectations of intended and unintended program outcomes (Cunningham, 1993; Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Gunn, 1995; Heery, 1994; Newby & Heide, 1992; Noe, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Zey, 1985). Before being asked to participate, potential mentors should be provided with detailed information regarding possible outcomes, both positive and negative. In addition, it is important that participants have a full understanding of intended individual outcomes and what they may or may not gain from participating in a formal mentoring program. In fact, unmet expectations has frequently been cited as a major potential contributor to program failure (Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991; Noe, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Unmet expectations may include expectations about career advancement, raises, assignments, frequency of contact with top management, recognition, visibility, or responsibilities. For example, many participants assume

that they will be promoted upon completion of the program. It is important that participants understand the limitations (such as participation not guaranteeing a promotion) and potential negative outcomes (such as resentment by colleagues and demanding time commitments) as well as the potential benefits.

Finally, roles and responsibilities associated with participating in a program should be clearly outlined and communicated to potential mentors and protégés (Brown, 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Cunningham, 1993; Gaskill, 1993; Gray, 1986:1988; Gunn, 1995; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Noe, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Settle, 1988). Orientation programs should be provided to mentors and protégés in order to discuss the roles and responsibilities of participation; these orientations can also be used to identify individuals who are not prepared for their roles or who need additional training (Newby & Heide, 1992). Gaskill (1993) argues that training needs to be undertaken in order to provide orientation, to clarify responsibilities, and to broaden the understanding of the roles of both the mentor and the protégé. In addition, she argues that mentors need to be provided with skill training relevant to their role in the formal relationship.

Emphasize Choice and Involvement

The effectiveness of a program depends on the degree to which participants in the mentoring process (mentors, protégés, and bosses) perceive that they have a sense of choice or decision-making control in the initiative. These individuals need to feel that they have some decision-making control over their individual roles in the process and are allowed to make decisions regarding their participation in the program and its structure.

For example, participation should be voluntary for both mentors and protégés, and participants should be allowed to withdraw from the program at any time with no negative consequences (Burke & McKeen, 1989; Carden, 1990; Cunningham, 1993; Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Gray, 1986:1988; Jorgenson, 1992; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Murray & Owen, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Zey, 1985). Although most potential mentors and protégés who are nominated or selected will probably choose to participate in the program, it is important that these participants perceive a sense of control over this decision. By being allowed to make the decision to participate, it is probable that these individuals will be more likely to take more responsibility for their individual roles in the formal

relationships. To the extent that participation is not perceived to be voluntary, the effectiveness of the initiative will be diminished by participant resistance.

Structured flexibility can be built into the program, with mentors and protégés having some degree of freedom in defining the relationship and program activities (Cunningham, 1993; Farren, Gray, & Kaye, 1984; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Zagumny, 1993; Zey, 1991). Farren, Gray, and Kaye (1984) argue that "rules" should be minimized and mentors' personal freedom should be maximized; they suggest that mentors should be encouraged to find a mentoring style that works for them. Zagumny (1993) also argues that it is important to include flexibility within the structured activities. He provides an example whereby mentoring pairs are given problems to solve but are left to decide the scope of specific activities they use to solve them.

It has also been suggested that participants be allowed to provide input in the design of a program (Gray & Gray, 1990; Rubow & Jansen, 1990; Zey, 1985:1991). For example, Gray and Gray (1990) cite that mentoring programs are most effective when participants feel ownership in the program. They suggest that mentors and protégés be allowed to decide whether a program is wanted and needed and be allowed to help design it as well as provide feedback regarding its implementation. Rubow and Jansen (1990) also argue that a program's success depends on the opportunity for meaningful input from potential participants and that the design of the program should be based on input from potential participants. Zey (1985) has suggested that the design and structure of the program should be at least partially based on input from mentors, protégés, and direct managers. Zey (1985:1991) goes even further to emphasize the importance of allowing participating mentors and protégés to have input into the matching decisions; he argues that it is important to make the matching processes as autonomous as possible with mentors and protégés being allowed to choose their pairs.

Provide Careful Selection and Matching Procedures

There should be a thoughtful and predetermined process for identifying, selecting, and matching program participants (mentors and protégés). This should be based on program objectives and a predetermined set of criteria. The careful identification and selection of program participants has been emphasized within the literature (Antal, 1993; Brown, 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Collin, 1988; Cunningham, 1993; Gaskill, 1993; Gray, 1986; Gunn, 1995; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Lawrie, 1987; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Murray & Owen, 1991; Noe, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Settle, 1988). There are a variety of potential methods for identifying and

selecting participants, including self-nomination, nomination by mentors of other potential mentors, nomination by supervisors or senior managers, and nomination by participants of potential mentors (Antal, 1993). Cunningham (1993) has stressed the importance of selecting individuals who are motivated and committed to participate in a program and identifies skills that are important to participating roles. Specifically, successful protégés tend to be motivated to learn, people-oriented, goal-oriented, intelligent, introspective, enthusiastic, and assertive. Effective mentors have strong communication skills and tend to be secure, confident, willing to trust, introspective, open, innovative, patient, tolerant, and accessible.

The importance of careful matching procedures has also been emphasized (Antal, 1993; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Collin, 1988; Cunningham, 1993; Gaskill, 1993; Gray, 1988; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Lawrie, 1987; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992). Matches are more likely to be effective when the organization uses data in matching (such as position, similar interests, personalities, accessibility, geographical location, functional area; Burke & McKeen, 1989; Gaskill, 1993). Once matched, assigned pairs should be monitored to determine the compatibility of the relationship and rematching should take place when necessary (Gaskill, 1993). Newby and Heide (1992) emphasize the importance of making sure that complementary goals and needs are aligned in the matching process.

Include Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation

An established process for monitoring program processes, assessing the effectiveness of an initiative, and making program improvements is critical to the ultimate effectiveness of any given program, a fact that is clearly emphasized in the literature (Berstein & Kaye, 1986; Carden, 1990; Collin, 1988; Cunningham, 1993; Gaskill, 1993; Gray & Gray, 1990; Gray, 1986:1988; Jorgenson, 1992; Kram & Bragar, 1991; Mendleson, Barnes, & Horn, 1989; Murray & Owen, 1991; Newby & Heide, 1992; Phillips-Jones, 1982:1983; Settle, 1988; Zey, 1991).

Kram and Bragar (1991) argue that the common practice of not anticipating systematic evaluation at the onset of a program typically results in a lack of clarity regarding program benefits. They encourage the utilization of periodic assessments through focus groups, interviews, or surveys to evaluate the effectiveness of a program and make improvements. In addition, these assessments can build and maintain the credibility of the program and individuals who championed the program as well as be used to set target goals. The choice of a particular evaluation strategy may depend on the

organization's existing human resources practices; for example, credible monitoring systems that are already in place may be used to assess the effectiveness of the program.

However, it is important to make sure that a chosen evaluation strategy assesses both process and outcome variables. Results of the monitoring process should be communicated with participants and senior management. Finally, Kram and Bragar (1991) argue that the monitoring process must also be linked to the strategic business needs of the organization in order to ensure that efforts are linked to current strategic challenges and workforce requirements.

Program evaluation and monitoring strategies should be clearly defined and structured during the program development phase, well before the actual implementation of the program. Gray and Gray (1990) suggest that a pilot program be evaluated before full implementation of a formal mentoring program. Feedback should be sought from multiple sources such as mentors, protégés, nonparticipants, archival data, managers, and others whenever possible (Gaskill, 1993). Because of the dynamic nature of the mentoring processes and the typical organization in which the program is imbedded, it should be assumed that the structure of the program will need to be modified over time in order to maintain its effectiveness.

The criteria that are chosen for inclusion in the evaluation strategy should be based, in part, on the program goals and objectives. Murray and Owen (1991) list several commonly cited program goals that potentially can be tracked and evaluated, including recruitment, turnover, employee skills, readiness for higher-level responsibilities, workforce flexibility, participant motivation, costs, and attitudes. They suggest that an evaluation plan include some baseline indicators that are measured prior to the implementation of a program. Additionally, they suggest that an evaluation plan include careful consideration directed toward several issues, including program goals, organizational issues that prompted the implementation of the program, definitions of success, how the results will be used, where and how data will be obtained, and database capability.

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FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMS IN ORGANIZATIONS

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

When junior managers are assigned to more experienced senior managers for the purposes of learning and development, many organizations report such favorable results as reduced turnover, increased organizational commitment, and improved succession planning. Add to that a relatively low cost and it becomes clear why formal mentoring programs have become a popular means of management development. Despite their widespread use, however, it has been difficult for practitioners to find information on the track record of such programs and how to build them. This publication summarizes eighty books and articles selected from the practical and academic literature. The experiences of individuals and organizations with formal mentoring programs are described, with additional information about benefits and drawbacks, organizational objectives, and methods for building effective programs.

The Author

Christina A. Douglas is a research associate at CCL in Greensboro, North Carolina. Her current work focuses on managerial learning through developmental relationships. She has also conducted research on work-group empowerment and leadership within self-managing teams. Previously, Douglas managed several projects related to the development and validation of selection systems at Xerox Corporation. With a Ph.D. in organizational behavior/human resources from Purdue University, she recently coauthored, with Cynthia D. McCauley, "A Survey on the Use of Formal Developmental Relationships in Organizations" (*Issues & Observations*, Vol. 17, No. 1/2, 1997).



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